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ABSTRACT

Eight articles on adult basic education are presented. The articles adapted from 1971 workshop presentations are: Action Implications for ABE Directors by Alan Knox; ABE Budget Development, by Donald G. Butcher; Competent ABE Instructors, by William D. Dowling; Interview Techniques and Training, by Norman Kagan; Reading: The Basic in Adult Basic Education, by Dr. Wayne Otto; Black Dialect, by Darnell Williams; Ideas for ABE Teachers of English as a Second Language, by Dennis R. Preston; and Meaningful Lesson Topics, by Thomas Z. Miranda. (LS)

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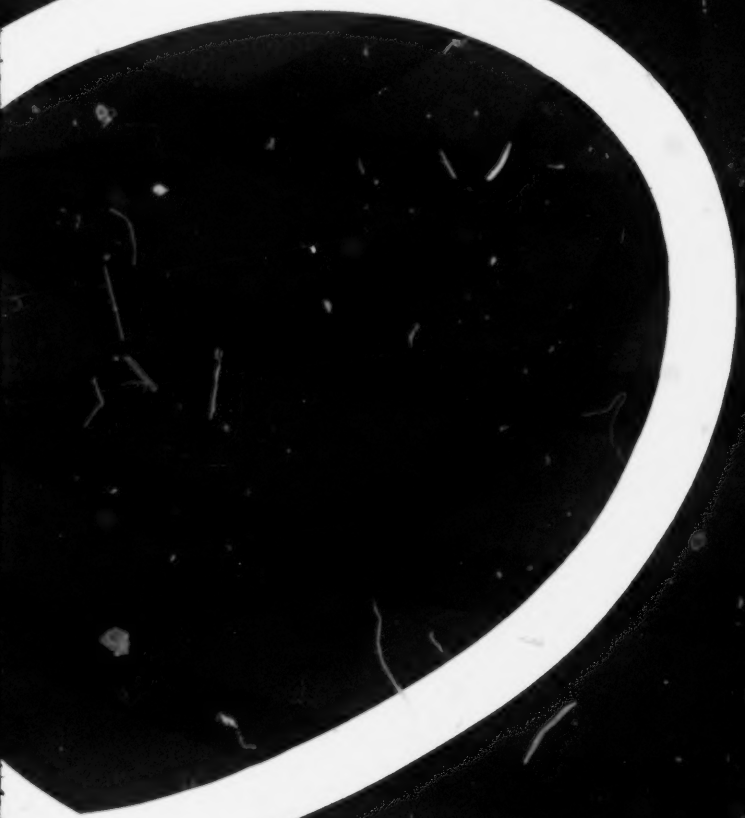
State of Ohio
Department of Education
1971



Action Implications in Adult Basic Education Programs

Articles Adapted from 1971 Workshop Presentations

MARTIN W. ESSEX
Superintendent of Public Instruction

ROBERT BOWERS
Assistant Superintendent, Instruction

State of Ohio
Department of Education
65 South Front Street
Columbus, Ohio 43215

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MARTIN W. ESSEX
Superintendent of Public Instruction
Ohio Department of Education

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An unprecedented 25 percent enrollment increase last year meant that a record 21,000 Ohioans participated in adult learning opportunities during 1970-71. Continuous expansion and refinement has characterized Adult Basic Education since its inception in 1966 with a first-year enrollment of 5,000 adults in 24 school districts.

Adult Basic Education is designed for adults who have not attained at least an eighth grade education and wish to gain additional skills in a vocation or improve their ability to exercise responsible citizenship. Adults who completed the basic education studies gained tangible results from their efforts – for example, 1,412 found jobs, 590 found better-paying employment, 445 earned promotions, 876 gained raises in salary, 1,149 continued their education into vocational or other job training, and 84 enrolled in college.

Ohio taxpayers also benefit from these adult learning opportunities. Through Adult Basic Education, 436 adults were able to discontinue their dependence on public welfare, a potential savings to the state of more than $1 million annually.

The adult's education does not interfere with a job or homemaking responsibilities. In urban centers, "learning laboratories" are open 12 hours a day so that adult learners may find it more convenient to take part. The use of programmed instruction allows adults to proceed at their own pace rather than the traditional classroom approach. This also permits teachers to give greater individual attention to any specific problems an adult may have.

An individualized approach is used in Ohio's Adult Basic Education efforts. Each adult learner follows a curriculum tailored to his capabilities and interests as determined through counseling sessions.

During the spring and summer of 1971 the Division of Federal Assistance in the Ohio Department of Education conducted five conferences for directors, teachers, and other Adult Basic Education staff members. Nationally recognized consultants shared their views on administration and management, staff development, curriculum planning, and teaching English as a second language. Special appreciation is extended to these persons, both for their oral presentations and for these written abridgements.

Martin W. Essex
Superintendent of Public Instruction

Target populations, recruitment efforts, classroom dynamics and teacher performance, short-term participant goals, and interrelated staff roles: all these areas of concern have action implications for ABE directors, regardless of the location or size of their programs.

Target Populations

Each ABE program serves a broad diversity of adults. Participants probably differ substantially in age, employment status, income level, educational attainment, ethnic background, native language, and academic aptitude. A program appropriately seeks to serve as many as possible of those adults who need basic educational and coping skills. But, program goals should include a commitment to maintain a balance between major target populations. Few directors would be satisfied if their ABE participants were exclusively adults working at the seventh- or eighth-grade levels or persons for whom English is a second language.

The problem with a first-come/first-served recruitment approach is that the program becomes a victim of a reverse Gresham's law. Identifiable groups with the highest enrollment and retention rates tend to displace other groups. This shift in clientele is most rapid when enrollment increases faster than funding. In many communities the result is that the adults who need ABE most seldom participate. *A suggested way to reach the most needy adults is to differentiate target groups for purposes of program development and reporting.*

Specific groups which should comprise the ABE clientele will vary from community to community. In most programs a major group should be the least educated—variously referred to as hard core, most disadvantaged, or poorest. Other target populations may be high school dropouts, working mothers, unemployed men, the foreign born, or settled-out migrants.

One way to differentiate major target groups is to provide corresponding program areas within ABE. For instance, if local planners decide to focus on the least educated group and to devote 25 percent of the ABE effort over several years to that target population, several decisions might follow. An internal budget might be projected to reflect the unique requirements of recruitment, instruction, and related services essential to assure optimal progression of the educationally most deprived to the highest equivalency possible.

This article was based on *Selected Action Implications for Urban ABE Directors,* a working paper used by Dr. Alan Knox (Center for Adult Education, Teachers College, Columbia University) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Punderson Manor House on June 21-23, 1971.

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One way to differentiate major target groups is to provide corresponding program areas within ABE. For instance, if local planners decide to focus on the least educated group and to devote 25 percent of the ABE effort over several years to that target population, several decisions might follow. An internal budget might be projected to reflect the unique requirements of recruitment, instruction, and related services essential to assure optimal progression of the educationally most deprived to the highest equivalency possible. The other 75 percent of the ABE program might place priority on reaching the maximum number of persons with available funds.

The number of least educated adults to be served would be limited by the cost per participant. Supervisory and instructional staff for this program area, and their approaches, would be selected according to the distinctive requirements of the target group within the context of the stated objectives. Unit cost would be relatively high. It simply costs more to provide the more intensive, specialized, and individualized service required to help hard core persons. Because of the much more difficult task of recruiting, educating, and retaining this group, different administrative expectations are also appropriate.

A related way to differentiate major target populations is to have separate categories for reporting. Most ABE directors are convinced that there is a direct connection between the level of reported enrollment and the level of funding they receive. As long as enrollment is reported as a total figure, the maximizing service approach will predominate at the expense of efforts to reach target populations difficult to attract and retain. Differentiated reporting categories could protect programs which differentiate target populations.

Recruitment Efforts

The characteristics of ABE's clientele partly reflect the program's recruitment and retention practices. Many ABE programs are designed to attract as many participants as possible with the available funds. This approach is referred to as maximizing service. In maximizing service, middle-class oriented ways of attracting participants in common use are relatively effective. In some programs, a special effort is made to attract a substantial number of the least educated. This approach

may be referred to as reaching the hard core. *There is growing evidence that differentiated recruitment efforts are needed to reach differentiated target populations.*

In the "maximizing service" approach, persons most readily attracted are similar to the middle class adults who typically participate in adult education. Many ABE programs focus on this target population because the investment in recruitment yields more people enrolling, more persisting, and more progressing faster. The standard recruitment method is word of mouth by satisfied participants. In some ABE programs, participants are encouraged to invite acquaintances to attend the ABE program. Many ABE directors reach prospective students through referrals by employers, churches, welfare, and employment agencies. Some directors arrange for cosponsorship of ABE classes with employers or churches. Many directors use newspaper articles, radio announcements, or brochures to let undereducated adults know about the ABE program.

In the "reaching the hard core" approach, different recruitment methods are needed. Techniques such as those just described are usually not effective for reaching the hard core group. Fewer of the least educated take advice from other than close friends. Fewer are associated with formal organizations. Fewer are exposed to mass media for other than entertainment purposes. One of the most promising methods for reaching hard core persons is the organization of vestibule activities (*e.g.*, informal living room sessions or vocational counseling) in which the primary purpose is to develop readiness for ABE classes. The use of recruiters has produced mixed results. In some ABE programs door-to-door recruiters have produced few participants who continued in the program. In others, paid para-professionals have been successful in establishing contact with potential participants who enrolled and stayed in the program.

Classroom Dynamics and Teacher Performance

After a person has enrolled in ABE, will he stay? This will depend on many things, including personal considerations not related to the program itself. Two program factors which will either encourage the person to stay or to drop out are classroom dynamics and teacher performance.

Attendance and retention will be better in a classroom with a relaxed set of rules and conventions—late arrivals, early departures, chatting, wandering, and so forth. The atmosphere should be permissive, friendly, and informal. Effectiveness of instruction may be affected by how well social, supportive, and custodial functions are carried out.

Late starters and returning absentees must be accommodated in a manner which encourages them to stay. Administrative pressure

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Late starters and returning absentees must be accommodated in a manner which encourages them to stay. Administrative pressure and teacher prodding can easily offend educationally disadvantaged adults.

Possibilities open to the ABE teacher to control student attention and classroom disruptions are limited primarily to the use of banter, looking the other way, and generalized admonitions to the entire class. Direct commands that may force confrontations should be avoided. Attempts to control the inattentive or mildly disruptive are usually counterproductive.

Students should not be required to compete with one another and should seldom be permitted to fail. Teachers need to be adept in placing the right materials in the hands of the right student at the right time. A variety of tactics can be used to avoid the appearance of failure – prompting, permitting delayed responses, redefining tasks, rephrasing questions, giving alternative assignments.

Instructional methods and content should not be heavily laden with elementary school techniques. ABE students are adults and must be treated as such. A present-recite-test-correct cycle soon proves to be boring, particularly if the content is too juvenile.

Patterns of instruction should be organized so that individualized instruction is possible. Three suggested approaches follow:

- A learning laboratory can be established. Each enrolling student is interviewed and tested and an individual work plan is prescribed. The student comes to the laboratory at his convenience and uses kits of materials and reading machines to pursue self-instructed assignments. He requests tutorial help as needed from a teacher in attendance. The student is periodically retested and his work plan reformulated. For many students, some combination of laboratory work with small group instruction works well.
- A small group instruction structure can be established within a class. The teacher gives assignments of varying difficulty to small groups, and acts as a resource person and multi-group member. Students select which group they wish to join. Friends may be encouraged to stay together. Individuals are expected to complete their own assignments and have freedom to "do their own thing" as long as they do not create disturbances. The use of small learning groups is of potential value for stimulating discussion and for fostering attitude change.
- Another promising approach lets participants in a class dictate the order and pace of covering desired content rather than following an order of presenting topics as determined by the teacher or materials writer. Students are involved in defining problems, illustrating concepts, and relating meanings to their personal experiences. Class interaction determines speed with which there is movement from topic to topic and in what order this is done. This approach can be used for a portion of the class time, with other blocks of time set aside for small group instruction or individual learning experiences.

Short-Term Participant Goals

"Individualized instruction" is widely misconstrued to mean individualized prescriptions to meet program rather than learner goals. Many participants enroll in ABE to acquire specific skills for specific purposes but are shoehorned into a program oriented toward eighth grade or high school equivalency. Getting a driver's license or passing a specific civil service test requires specialized content and effort. Short-term goals should be legitimized and instruction modified accordingly.

Meaningful inclusion of education in urban living—consumer health, family life, human relations, civic education, as well as "coping" skills—will be effected only if deliberate effort is made to set aside time for instruction. Resources must be allocated to appropriate curricular materials and methods and ABE teachers and aides trained and encouraged in their use. Instruction in these areas is typically incidental and unsystematic. "Education for urban living" must be defined in realistic short-term program intentions if it is meant to be more than rhetoric.

Short-term participant goals are important. Many adults enroll in ABE with only vague notions of what the program has to offer and with unrealistic expectations of the time needed to reach their goals. Their objectives must often be reformulated in terms of a series of realistic, short-term objectives.

Emphasis is required on orientation and counseling new and prospective participants. A majority come for job-related reasons. A vigorous program of vocational counseling and job placement will significantly increase enrollment and reduce dropouts.

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Participants are often unclear about what the program can offer them and the time and effort required to meet their goals. Once over their initial fears, they require continuous private feedback of their short-term performance. For those who wish it, results of achievement tests should be included. This especially applies to participants in intermediate and advanced levels of instruction. Although new or beginning participants may require strong and continuing encouragement to offset fear of failure, the more advanced want to know how they are doing in relation to their goals. Those unable to "locate" themselves are often discouraged and confused.

Interrelated Staff Roles: Teachers and Aides

In many instances the ABE classroom teacher is responsible for planning much of the program content, selecting materials, and choosing teaching strategies. The success of the teacher, nevertheless, is largely dependent on the support of administrators, counselors, and in some programs paid or volunteer aides.

The interdependence of instructional roles is most evident in the relationship between the teacher and the paid or unpaid aide. Such a person can assist with instructional tasks or he can relieve the teacher of noninstructional chores. In addition, an aide can assist with recruitment and follow up on absentees.

The precise role the aide plays in any one classroom is determined in varying measure by state laws and local regulations, the expectations of local ABE administrators, the style of the classroom teacher, the source of funding for paid aides, the demands of students, and the desires of the aide himself. The most important determinant is probably the teacher's style. Aides are most often productively used in instructional roles when the teacher organizes his class into small groups or individual units. Reliance on instruction involving the class as a whole often relegates the aide to a clerical role. It may be useful, therefore, to encourage teachers who can organize a classroom into small learning groups to teach the

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more heterogeneous classes found in single class sites and to provide them with instructional aides.

Unpaid volunteers often have higher levels of education than do paid aides, who are often recruited from the same community as the target population. This characteristic of the volunteer accounts in part for the greater use of volunteers in instructional roles than is the case with paid aides. Moreover, because the paid aide depends on salary provided by the program, he is less likely than the volunteer to leave when dissatisfied. Consequently, teachers have more leverage in assigning tasks to the paid person. Where paid aides and volunteers are used in the same classroom, the volunteer is more likely to fill a tutorial role while the aide may be assigned clerical duties. Administrators should be aware of this tendency when they assign aides to the classroom.

Where the teacher and the participants come from different cultural or racial backgrounds, the aide who shares the participants' cultural perspectives can act as bridge between the students and the ABE program. Although administrators often voice their approval of this role for aides, many programs seem to de-emphasize this function in practice. The most salient day-to-day concern is fitting the para-professional to the teacher's classroom style. Moreover, the role of bridge to the community is difficult for the aide, who must balance his loyalty to the program and to the participants. Particularly in classes where participants and aide speak a language the teacher does not understand, there is the possibility of friction—especially when the aide sees himself as an advocate for the participants.

The expectations of ABE administrators are important determinants of the aide's role. Some formalization of aide roles is useful administratively and encourages efficient use of aide time. Too much formalization of aide functions, however, will restrict the aide's usefulness to the teacher and may preclude the development of a compatible working relationship between teacher and aide.

An effective working relationship in the classroom is crucial to the productive use of the aide but difficult to achieve. Some administrators have successfully dealt with this problem by individually placing each aide with a compatible teacher. Alternatively, teachers could be permitted to choose aides from among several candidates. The "fit" of aide and teacher can be influenced by preservice or inservice training for both. Most teachers express a desire for better preservice preparation for aides. A preservice training program can extend the range of roles the aide is capable of assuming while screening out clearly unsuitable candidates. If preservice training accustoms the aide to a particular teaching style, however, it may lead to friction with a teacher whose methods conflict with the aide's expectations. The importance of on-the-job training in cooperation with the teacher is thus indicated.

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Inservice training can equally assist the teacher to modify teaching techniques to use aides more efficiently and to view the aide as an important member of the staff rather than as a subordinate.

Interrelated Staff Roles: Teachers and Counselors

Teachers and counselors share responsibility for acclimating the ABE participant to the instructional program, helping him define his particular instructional needs, and assisting him to apply his education to the environment beyond the classroom. There is a lack of consensus among professionals as to the most effective role for counselors in these tasks. Some counselors do little more than testing. Others are prodded by supervisors who believe that counselors should concentrate on helping participants deal with the power structure. Counselors may screen participants and place them in classes, test them, do job placement, make referrals to social service and health agencies, and counsel on a variety of

educational, vocational and personal problems. They may also arrange for speakers from such agencies as the League of Women Voters, a bureau of consumer frauds, or the city housing authority.

Many adults enroll in ABE classes with only vague notions of what the program has to offer and with unrealistic expectations of the time needed to reach their goals. For that reason, retention and participant performance are usually increased by greater program emphasis on orientation and counseling of new participants. Those at intermediate and advanced levels are particularly likely to benefit from continuous private feedback on their performance, including results of achievement tests. Although participants—particularly new enrollees—often need strong and continuing encouragement to offset fears of failure, most want to know how well they are doing in relation to goals. Those unable to "locate" themselves often become discouraged.

Participants are likely to consult counselors about educational or vocational problems, but rarely ask assistance with more personal difficulties. Counselors are often white and the ABE participants black or from another ethnic minority. This difference may limit communication between student and counselor. In fact, the teacher is more likely to develop a familiarity with the out-of-school life of the participant than the counselor who may see a participant no more than once or twice during the year.

Problems relating to health, jobs, housing, and family life probably affect dropout rates as much or more than inadequacies in the program itself. Assistance is clearly needed to at least deal with those social problems amenable to change. Some ABE administrators argue that the counselor should be involved as little as possible with academic concerns and only help participants solve problems that inhibit efficient participation in the ABE class.

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Where counselor availability is limited, there are obvious implications for greater teacher involvement in the counseling process. However, teachers often do not have time to familiarize themselves with various social service and health resources in their participants' communities. Perhaps the counselor's role in many programs could become one of resource trainer and backstopper for the classroom teacher, making it possible for the teacher to more effectively assume the counseling function.

Most ABE participants are motivated to attend class to change their job status. This suggests the need to develop vocational counseling and job placement competencies in the ABE program, either through direct contacts with employers or through cultivated linkages with state or city job placement or training programs. The heavy reliance of ABE programs on word-of-mouth for recruitment also argues for improving job placement capabilities. This technique operates with special effectiveness when the prospective participant learns that others have obtained jobs as a result of their ABE experience. There is also good likelihood that the addition of counselors for vocational advisement and placement would reduce ABE's dropout rate.

Action Implications

Good ABE programs don't just happen. Effective leadership by concerned administrators is essential. Target populations must be identified. Recruitment efforts must reach differentiated target populations. Teaching techniques and classroom materials must be appropriate for adults. Participants must clearly understand what the program can offer them and work toward realistic short-term goals. Last, but not least, all staff members—teachers, aides, counselors, and administrators—must work as a team to serve adults who need basic educational and coping skills.

"A school budget is an educational plan with an estimate of the receipts and expenditures necessary to finance it for a definite period of time."[1] Although this definition refers to an entire educational system, it also holds for a specific budget, such as one for Adult Basic Education.

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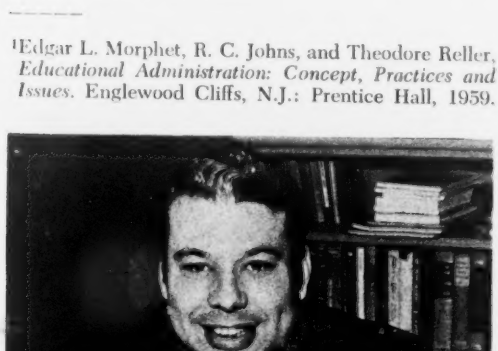
[1]Edgar L. Morphet, R. C. Johns, and Theodore Reller, *Educational Administration: Concept, Practices and Issues.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1959.



This article was adapted from a presentation made by Dr. Donald G. Butcher (Dean, School of General Education; Ferris State College; Big Rapids, Michigan) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Punderson Lodge on June 21-23, 1971.

To develop a budget, three distinct steps should be considered – budget preparation, budget discussion and approval, and budget management. In addition to these steps, general guidelines and budget presentations must also be considered.

Budget Preparation

When considering a budget for either your own ABE program or for a hypothesized situation, such as one of those outlined on the following page, you must assess long- and short-range educational goals and objectives and attempt to fit them into an educational plan. Financial aspects should not be considered until the educational plan has been developed. Too often in the past, the financial breakdown has been the sum and substance of budget development. Today, prudent educational administrators regard budget preparation as an end product of program planning, as the point where program components are translated into costs.

Once a budget has been established for the program you wish to offer, evaluate the costs that have been stated in terms of their relative merit to the program. It is at this point that you first consider estimated revenue and work toward a balance between available funds and recommended expenditures.

Budget Discussion and Approval

Once you have established program priorities and completed initial budgetary estimates, discuss your determinations with those of other administrators and with those of your superiors. Reconcile differences and thus assure a crosscheck of general direction, goals, priorities, cost estimates, and cost evaluations. This should result in final approval of a specified number of dollars for your operating budget. In the case of ABE, this entails State Department of Education approval.

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Budget Management

The approved budget should not be perceived as a final spending plan. Variables do enter the picture and the need for flexibility must be considered and assumed. However, once a budget has been established, your responsibilities as director include making wise decisions concerning the need and appropriateness of budgetary changes. If the budget has been carefully prepared, reviewed, and evaluated, extensive changes should not be necessary under normal circumstances. Care should be taken that, when necessary, budget revisions are approved at the state level.

General Guidelines

As a part of the steps outlined above, certain general guidelines are helpful.

- Prepare several budgets indicating different services that can be provided at various spending levels. Point out what could be eliminated if the funding level is reduced.
- Include as part of any budget presentation expenditures for the previous fiscal year, the budget for the current year, and estimates of receipts and expenditures for the ensuing fiscal year. A basis for comparison then exists for review of the proposed budget.
- Develop an accrual system of accounting, if possible. This means estimated revenues are considered available once they are allocated, not when the cash is actually received. Money is considered spent when obligations are incurred, not when it is actually spent. The unencumbered balance, then, provides a more accurate picture of what has actually been expended. This type of budget must be updated and corrected as money is received and bills paid.

As Director, How Would You Build an ABE Budget?

Salaries

Director?
Supervisors?
Instructors?
Aides?
Secretaries?
Clerks?
Recruiters?
Counselors?
Other employees?

Large suburban school system
30,000 people, mostly middle class
Less than 5% of white adults need ABE services
Negro adults have greatest educational needs
Foreign-born interested in enrolling
Estimated 400 adults will enroll
Total ABE budget of $35,000
Teaching rate of $9.00 per hour
Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

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Other Expenses

Administration?
Employee fixed charges?
Travel?
Consultant services?
Instructional materials?
Expendable supplies?
Equipment?
Plant operation?

Small suburban school system
6,000 families
At least 20% of adults qualify for ABE
Crowded, lower socio-economic community
Varied ethnic backgrounds, including recently immigrated Negroes and Mexican Americans
Racial tension somewhat high
Estimated 180 adults will enroll, most with at least fifth-grade reading ability
Total ABE budget of $10,000
Teaching rate of $5.00 per hour
Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

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Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

School system of a highly industrialized city
200,000 people in the city, plus 200,000 more in the surrounding area
Over 10,000 adults lack eighth-grade education
250 in ABE during previous year
Potential enrollment of 600 with proper recruitment and program development
Total ABE budget of $100,000
Teaching rate of $7.00 per hour
Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

Small suburban school system
6,000 families
At least 20% of adults qualify for ABE
Crowded, lower socio-economic community
Varied ethnic backgrounds, including recently immigrated Negroes and Mexican Americans
Racial tension somewhat high
Estimated 180 adults will enroll, most with at least fifth-grade reading ability
Total ABE budget of $10,000
Teaching rate of $5.00 per hour
Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

County-wide rural school system
6,400 people in 400 square mile area
Approximately 25% of 1,000 adults over 25 function at less than eighth-grade level
Area considered economically deprived
No population centers
Few potential ABE participants have transportation
Potential enrollees embarrassed by inability to read
Estimated 75 to 90 adults will enroll
Total ABE budget of $10,500
Teaching rate of $5.00 per hour
Minimum 120 hours instruction per school year

- Prepare a performance budget to supplement the traditional budget. Include a brief description of what benefit is expected from each line item listed. For example, if three tape recorders are ordered at $200 each, a performance budget would include a brief statement explaining how this expenditure would benefit the program. A budget of this type is segmented in nature and does not replace an educational plan. A performance budget does, however, aid in the evaluation portion of budget development and in explaining a budget to laymen.

A Total Budget Presentation

According to William H. Roe in his book *School Business Management*,[2] the following details should be included in a total budget presentation:

Budget title
Letter of transmittal
Table of contents
Educational philosophy and objectives
The years ahead—growing pains
Educational plan for next year
Financial statement for next year with expenditure and receipt summaries
Detailed budget breakdown by classification and subclassification
Supporting data for expenditures
Comparison with revenue and expenditures for previous years
Discussion of revenues
Conclusion

In summary, the budget process is a very important dimension of educational administration and your ability to prepare and present a meaningful, realistic budget will have much to do with determining the success of your Adult Basic Education program.

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[2]William H. Roe, *School Business Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

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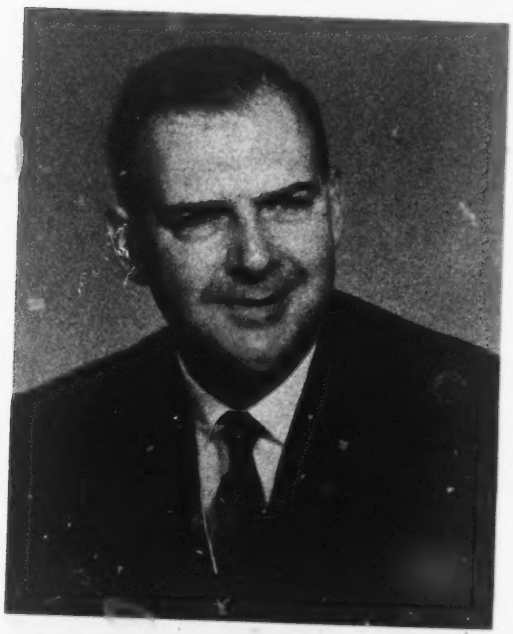
IN ACTION

Four categories should be considered in providing and keeping competent instructors for Adult Basic Education. They are: (1) selection of teachers; (2) preservice orientation; (3) inservice learning opportunities; and (4) evaluation of teacher effectiveness.

Selection of Teachers

The problem of finding the right ABE teacher for the right place at the right time is not entirely different from finding the right person to be one's lifelong mate. With both, there may be a direct relationship between the amount of time and care taken in the selection process and success of the life together. What, then, should the prospective ABE teacher be like? Desirable characteristics include the following:



This article was adapted from a presentation by Dr. William D. Dowling (Professor of Adult Education; The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Punderson Manor House on June 21-23, 1971.

- *Respect for adults as students.* An ABE teacher must be aware of and concerned about problems and significant events affecting the lives of adult students. He must understand and respect the fact that adults have life concerns which can enhance or destroy the learning environment.
- *Willingness to individualize instruction.* To be successful, an ABE teacher must be willing to practice freedom in the classroom and consider the variety of rates at which adults learn. This will result in individualized instruction based on life and learning needs of adults.
- *Knowledge of basic communication skills.* Almost too obvious to state, a prospective ABE teacher should know how people learn basic communication skills.
- *Willingness to prepare.* Adults are quick to sense inefficiency. An ABE teacher must be well prepared at all times.
- *Ability to listen.* Many adult students are interested in locating a sympathetic teacher with whom they can share life concerns.
- *Love and empathy for people.* Teacher concern must relate to people individually, not collectively. And, this concern must be real, not abstract. Evidence of hostility toward adult learners or the educationally disadvantaged on the part of a prospective teacher indicates a lack of fitness for an ABE assignment.

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- *Ability to recognize success.* Each ABE enrollee has had many life experiences, some of which were successes. The teacher should be able to focus on the positive aspects of the student's life in such a way that they contribute to positive learning experiences.
- *Sincere, honest, patient, and tolerant.* The teacher should serve as an example for students. A teacher who can relate well with adults having minimal academic skills should be highly recommended for ABE employment.
- *Versatile.* A teacher who has successfully taught in various content areas and used a variety of teaching methods should hopefully be able to adjust to teaching adults.
- *Resourceful.* The ability to "invent" methods and materials sometimes separates superior teachers from merely good ones.
- *Faith in himself.* A teacher who has been successful in previous situations would hopefully have faith in his ability to work with adults. Evidence of success with other age groups, however, is not a fool-proof guide in the selection of ABE teachers.
- *Enthusiastic about teaching.* A teacher who enjoys teaching certainly has more chance for success than one who regards teaching as tolerable or less or one who views an ABE assignment as a "moonlighting" venture.
- *Sense of humor.* Last, but not least, the ability to laugh with people is important.

Preservice Orientation

Many teachers come to Adult Basic Education from successful experiences in classrooms with youthful learners. Before they are given a class of adults, these teachers should under-

stand several things about how adults differ from youthful learners. Suggestions by J. Roby Kidd[1] include the following:

- For the adult, there is no "correct" answer. Most significant problems faced by adults do not have a correct answer in the sense that doubt or uncertainty is removed completely. Furthermore, the perceptions an adult has of the material being learned are directly related to his life experiences.
- The "correctness" of what is learned is likely associated with traditions or religion. An adult has simply had more time to become bound by the stereotypes of his culture.
- Any solutions which adults derive from learning situations have effects, and these effects are usually applied immediately to life situations.
- Most important in the ABE classroom, the expectations of the student and the teacher may be different. Together, at an early stage of the learning experience, they should define the student's objectives.
- Adults have more and different kinds of experiences than youthful learners. And, adults have their experiences organized differently. Past experiences may block, modify, or hopefully, enhance the learning process.
- Adults may take longer to learn material than youthful learners. While it may take an adult longer to learn similar material, the adult's power to learn may not necessarily have been decreased by age alone.

The beginning ABE teacher may find it helpful to develop a list of demographic data directed toward reaching a greater understanding of each adult learner in his class. Useful items might be birthplace, age, marital status, number in the present family, position of the adult learner in the family, family income, previous schooling, reason for attending

ABE classes, means of discovering the learning center, and any test scores available. *Care should be exercised in gathering data.* Many ABE enrollees have had numerous intrusions into personal aspects of their lives. Rapport should be established before an attempt is made to gather data.

The beginning teacher should understand some of the psychological characteristics of ABE students. The following list is suggested as a guide to what a teacher might expect, not as a stereotype of adult learners.

- Many ABE students possess a generalized negative self concept, particularly in the role of learner. They may believe with good reason that they exert little control over many aspects of their lives. Previous school experiences may have been a negative influence in their lives.
- The teacher may represent the "establishment" and be viewed negatively.
- Many ABE enrollees have a fear of failure, reinforced by previous lack of success in school.

[1]J. Roby Kidd. *How Adults Learn.* New York: Association Press, 1959.

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- The teacher may represent the "establishment" and be viewed negatively.
- Many ABE enrollees have a fear of failure, reinforced by previous lack of success in school.
- Some adults have a heightened sensitivity to non-verbal forms of communication. A frown, a gesture, or a condescending tone of voice may be much more meaningful to ABE students than to persons with whom the teacher ordinarily interacts.
- The lack of money, poor home and family relationships, and lack of opportunities because of minimal academic achievement may be positive motivational factors.
- Some ABE students have developed coping mechanisms enabling them to survive in an essentially hostile environment.
- Some have cultivated an appearance of dullness keeping them from the slings and arrows of the dominant culture into which they feel unintegrated.
- Some younger members of minority groups may express hostility toward school and teachers.
- Recent migrants from rural areas may not consider themselves in the mainstream of society. The feeling of "down home" remains with many Appalachian immigrants even though they have been in the city for years. They may also express fierce independence —too poor to paint and too proud to whitewash. They may in fact be isolated from the community in which they live.

- Many ABE learners turn toward a traditionalistic approach to life. Looking backward to times perceived as being more pleasant may indeed be easier than dealing with the realities of the present.
- Some adults adopt a philosophy of fatalism as a buffer against failure and disappointment.
- Many ABE students have great strengths, but they may not be expressed in traditional or middle class ways. The beginning ABE teacher must understand the strengths required by persons of little education to survive as long as they have in a culture which prizes education as highly as ours.

This list of characteristics, admittedly mostly negative, is provided not to reinforce stereotypes but to emphasize that each ABE teacher should be aware of varieties of life styles which may have an effect on their students.

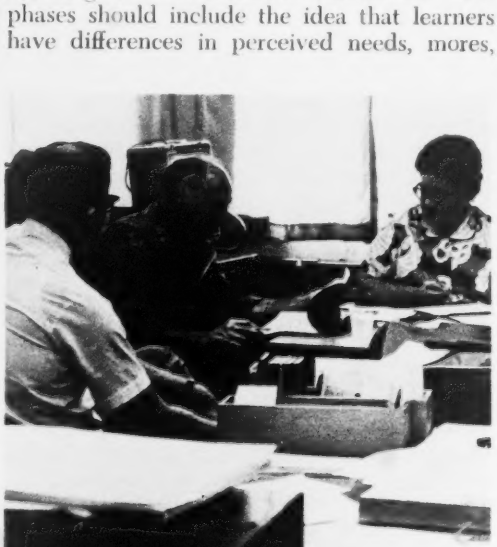
Inservice Learning Opportunities

Teacher competency can be improved through inservice learning opportunities—for example, periodic meetings of supervisors and teachers.

An effort should also be made to acquaint teachers with professional publications dealing with curriculum development and other considerations within the whole field of Adult Basic Education.

Teachers should be helped particularly in their efforts to develop a curriculum suitable for adult students. The curriculum should address itself to the immediate educational needs of individual students and their requirements for success in the society within which they live.

As a part of inservice training agendas, teachers should be helped to understand the meaning of individualized instruction. Emphases should include the idea that learners have differences in perceived needs, mores,



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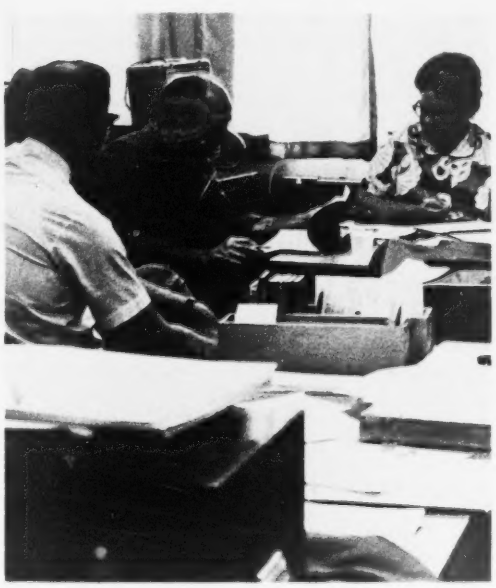
As a part of inservice training agendas, teachers should be helped to understand the meaning of individualized instruction. Emphases should include the idea that learners have differences in perceived needs, mores, and backgrounds which affect their reactions to teaching materials, class organization, and effective rates and styles of learning. Extremely slow learners or those with specific learning disabilities will need personalized instruction.



There are specifics to be learned about establishing a supportive classroom climate for adults. Many of these techniques exceed the limits of human kindness. The ABE teacher should be well acquainted with available materials and should learn how to produce additional materials, if needed. He should also know how to help the student develop a process for self evaluation of learning progress.

Evaluation of Teacher Effectiveness

Teacher evaluation is approached cautiously by many administrators. The increasing availability of teachers may, however, allow administrators to be more selective and more judicious in the evaluation procedures.

ABE teachers can be evaluated on personal qualities, professional factors, and the success of students who are in their classes.

Personal qualities such as physical appearance, voice, dress, and vigor are important to the ABE teacher as they affect his ability to relate to students. More important than physical characteristics might be enthusiasm, ability to establish rapport with students, social adaptability, English usage, self-control, and poise.

Professional factors such as degrees held and characteristics associated with State Department of Education qualifications can also serve as evaluation criteria.

The educational gains of students in classes should be utilized only if clear objectives are stated for the learning experiences in which the learners are engaged. It would be unfortunate to evaluate a teacher on one set of learning criteria if another had been operable within the learning environment.

Elements of effective interviewer communication—that is, effective ways of responding to a client's statements—are frequently used by counselors, teachers, social workers, psychologists, physicians, and other expert interviewers. Expert interviewer (as used here) means a person who is not only judged effective by other professional interviewers, but a person about whom his clients say such things as, "I felt I could talk to him about anything," or, "He really helped me to see things clearly."

Four elements of interviewer communication will be discussed. They are not suggested as "be-alls" for effective interviewing, but they do account for at least some of the power of interview techniques. More important, they can provide a beginning for interview training.

Conversation vignettes will illustrate possible responses that are in line with the four elements. When and how similar responses might be used in Adult Basic Education interviews will depend on specific situations and on interview purposes.

Exploratory Responses

The first element, exploratory response, encourages involvement and permits latitude in client response. The participant is helped to feel free to reject, disagree, accept, or modify the interviewer's comments or reflections. Through his responses, the interviewer encourages the participant to explore further, to expand or elaborate, and to assume responsibility in the interview itself.

This article was adapted from a presentation by Dr. Norman Kagan (Professor of Personnel and Counseling Services; Michigan State University; East Lansing, Michigan) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Atwood Lodge on July 19-21, 1971.

Non-exploratory responses by an interviewer give the client little opportunity to explore, expand, or express himself freely. At times an interviewer may think it appropriate to limit or structure the responses when the client is highly anxious or confused or when very specific information is needed. In general, however, non-exploratory responses tend to make the client a passive learner as far as the interview itself is concerned. Both exploratory and non-exploratory responses are illustrated in the vignettes which follow.

(Actress A is a young drama major applying for a TV job in which she will play the part of a patient being interviewed by medical students.)

Actress A: Well, my parents, . . . they more or less approve of what I'm doing . . . my career choice.

Interviewer I: Are they getting more used to it?

Interviewer II: How do they express their feelings about it?

Notice how the first interviewer's response encouraged a simple yes or no answer, while the second interviewer's response encouraged the woman to elaborate about her parent's approval.

(The interview with Actress A continues and she discusses her feelings about being on TV.)

Actress A: Well, actually, you know, I've never had the chance to see myself on TV before or even to do a video tape and see a playback of myself.

Interviewer I: Of course, you're looking forward to seeing yourself on TV!

Interviewer II: Are you looking forward to seeing yourself on TV?

Note that the response of Interviewer I was such that it would be rather difficult for the woman to agree with, disagree with, or even modify. This response has an authoritative quality while that of Interviewer II was more tentative. How easy it would be for the woman

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(Housewife B has made an appointment to talk about difficulties she is experiencing in her marriage.)

Housewife B: Some of this is very personal. I haven't really been able to talk with anyone about it.

Interviewer I: You don't have to talk about anything you don't want to talk about.

Interviewer II: Personal? Umhuh. Go on.

The second interviewer conveyed to the woman that he was ready to listen. The first interviewer tended to convey the idea that the woman should proceed carefully and cautiously.

(Student C, a Black ABE participant, talks about racial encounters he has had, how he has handled them, and what they have meant to him.)

Student C: If you make a lot of noise, well h---, you're just an angry Black, what-the-H-is-wrong-with-you, and all the rest of that crap. And, yet if you swallow it, that doesn't make things better either.

Interviewer: What does that do to you then?

There is no one best, or correct, exploratory response to statements such as those by Student C. The response by the interviewer would, however, tend to encourage the man to tell more.

Affective-Cognitive Responses

A second element of interviewer communication is referred to as affective-cognitive response. Affective responses generally make reference to motions or feelings such as fear, anger, or tenseness. Affective interviewer responses attempt to maintain or intensify the client's focus more on underlying attitudes than on the literal meaning of words spoken. Cognitive interviewer responses, on the other hand, deal with the literal meaning of a client's words or seek factual information.

Again, some actor statements are followed by interviewer responses. Both affective and cognitive facets of the actor's statements are dealt with. Before reading the interviewer responses at the end of each vignette, ask yourself, "If I were in the client's shoes, how would I feel?"

(Actor D is a college student, and like Actress A, is applying for a TV job in which he will be interviewed by medical students.)

Actor D: No. I've never done any of this kind of work before, and I just wondered what I had to do. I would like to know what kind of people I'm going to be working with? Are they going to be interviewing me or just talking? Do I have to put on any special clothes or anything like that?

Interviewer I: You really don't have any information about the job you are expected to do.

Interviewer II: Sounds like you're a little nervous about this job.

The first interviewer's response related to cognitive aspects while the second interviewer focused on the man's feelings. A fascinating thing about feelings is that on some levels we recognize each others moods and gut reactions, but it is a rare experience to acknowledge or label these.

Think about the vignette again. You had little trouble recognizing that the actor was anxious, nervous, and worried. Why? Because you have had a lifetime of recognizing moods of people. As a child you learned to recognize your parents' moods. At home, in school, and on dates you learned to attend to subtle messages you received or suffered. The human mind is a fantastically complex nerve center. No one has to teach you how to identify the feelings of other people. You just know. But, you have had little practice in labeling the feelings that you perceive. Rarely do we ever put into words what we are feeling from the other person or what we are communicating to him. The point is that as an interviewer you are capable of identifying the affective components of a client's statements, but you will have to teach yourself to name the things you are sensing.

In the next vignette, stop after you have read the actor's statement and think about the affective components in his message.

Actor D: Well, I kind of understand what I have to do, but I'm wondering, do these medical students get a regular grade for how well the interview goes?

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In the next vignette, stop after you have read the actor's statement and think about the affective components in his message.

Actor D: Well, I kind of understand what I have to do, but I'm wondering, do these medical students get a regular grade for how well the interview goes?

Interviewer I: Do they get a grade like they do in other courses? Yes, they get a pass or fail.

Interviewer II: Grade? It sounds like you're concerned that you might influence their record if you're not careful.

The first interviewer responded on a literal basis while the second addressed himself to affective components of the message. For interview purposes, recognition and response to the affective are encouraged. But, in the preceding example, it is evident that a combination of cognitive and affective might be appropriate. The interviewer could have responded, "Yes, they get a pass or fail, but it sounds like you're concerned that you might influence their record if you're not careful."

In this next vignette, notice that some interviewers share their own feelings.

Housewife B: He used to make $200 a week and we got along just fine. But now . . . he makes much less and it isn't easy.

Interviewer I: How much money do you need to get along?

Interviewer II: It's really discouraging to have to scrape along. Sounds like it's getting you down.

Ask yourself, "What is the usual way for people to respond to each other? Isn't it almost always with cognitive communication?" Responding to the affective components of a person's communication is indeed offering a unique experience. If behavior can be caused by underlying feelings, attitudes, and moods, shouldn't helping someone recognize and own up to his feelings help him? Or, is it better not to know? Not to label? As you read the next vignette, think how you would respond.

Student C: I used to think that if ever I got up North I'd have it made. Oh, to get North, that if I ever get North it would be all right. And, then I got North.

Interviewer: You had high hopes and you really were badly let down.

Would you have responded in this manner? The exact words are not as important as a response to affective components.

Listening Responses

A third characteristic of an effective interview is that the interviewer must actively and deliberately communicate to the client that he is listening and taking seriously what is being said. Periodically, the interviewer should use listening responses to check out his understanding of what the client is saying. Such responses tend to encourage the client to reflect on his own statements and begin to listen to his own concerns at least as closely as the interviewer is. Again, let's look at several vignettes.

Actor D: Oh, now I understand what you want me to do. You want me to work with the same problem each time with each interview but on different days. Otherwise, I get to be myself, but I'm just wondering because . . . I'm kind of different from day to day.

Interviewer I: Well, we have many actors and actresses. It all works out.

Interviewer II: You're not sure how consistent you will be?

Didn't the first interviewer hear the actor's concern? Perhaps, but more than likely he reasoned that this hired actor needn't worry about the medical students getting a fair break. After all, he's one of many actors and actresses involved in the program. The interviewer has responded with an end product that is logical to him rather than with a step-by-step sequence. To the man, it appears that the interviewer has not heard him. A listening response, such as that by Interviewer II, is often simply a paraphrasing which offer evidence of listening.

Actress A: What if I get a feeling that I like one of the students better than another? I mean what if he likes me? How am I going to be able to keep playing the role?

Interviewer I: What you do outside the interview sessions is your business.

Interviewer II: If flirtations develop, it will be difficult for you to continue to play the role as we have worked it out.

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Actress A: What if I get a feeling that I like one of the students better than another? I mean what if he likes me? How am I going to be able to keep playing the role?

Interviewer I: What you do outside the interview sessions is your business.

Interviewer II: If flirtations develop, it will be difficult for you to continue to play the role as we have worked it out.

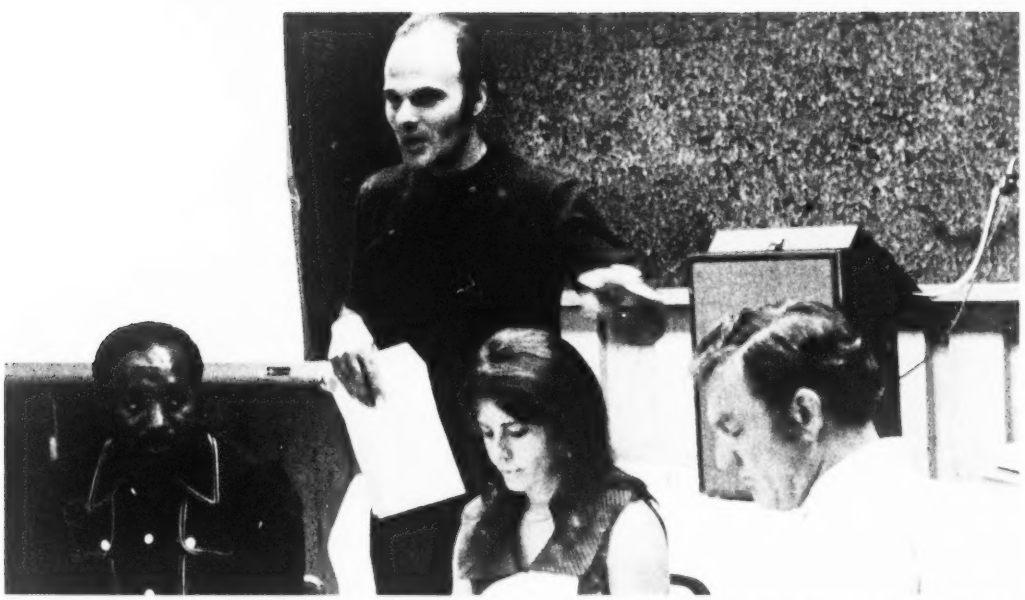
Interviewer I assumed he understood what the actress was saying and carried it two or three steps further. Interviewer II heard a message and sought verification from the woman about what he thought he heard.

Student C: I was so d--- mad I was afraid I'd hit somebody or do something so I got in the car and went to a bar and had a couple drinks. Then I drove around and around because I was so mad. I was hoping it would all go away somehow. I thought maybe if I drove around and kind of got it out of my system that I, . . . I don't know, somehow it would be better. I wouldn't do anything that I'd be sorry for afterwards.

Interviewer I: I guess trying to run away from yourself doesn't usually work, but a drink sometimes helps.

Interviewer II: You were afraid of what you might do and so you ran?

Interviewer I's response indicated to the client that he either didn't hear or didn't understand. Interviewer II's question is a listening response.



For the next vignette read the woman's statement. Then stop and think through what you would say if you wanted to communicate that you were really listening. Would your response have been similar to that of the interviewer?

Housewife B: He comes home drunk and then, well the kids, you know, and the way he acts and I really worry about what's going to happen with the kids. It all seems so familiar.

Interviewer: I see that you're worried, but I'm not sure that I understand what you're trying to tell me. Can you make that more clear.

Honest Responses

The fourth type of interviewer communication, honest responses, is perhaps the most difficult. This response mode is sometimes perceived as dangerous, risky, or "not nice." Interviewer responses are to be such that they communicate to the client that the interviewer is willing to deal directly and as accurately as possible with the client's message. Such responses encourage the client to be honest and specific in labeling his own perceptions, attitudes, and reactions. The interviewer must be able to deal with intense, embarrassing, or even socially taboo themes. Effective interviewers tend to be honest rather than vague or evasive. Ineffective interviewers tend to be lengthy and vague. More important, ineffective interviewers are inclined to "clean up" the message they have heard.

Actor D: Well, I think now that I really understand what you want me to do. I think that we have gotten it clear what we have to do. I really understand.

Interviewer I: It takes time to get the stuff down.

Interviewer II: You're really ready to get out of here, aren't you?

Actor D: Well, I really appreciate your giving me the opportunity to do this, and I really hope I can come up to your qualifications.

Interviewer I: You would really like to be able to please us?

Interviewer II: Well . . . it's all right . . . .

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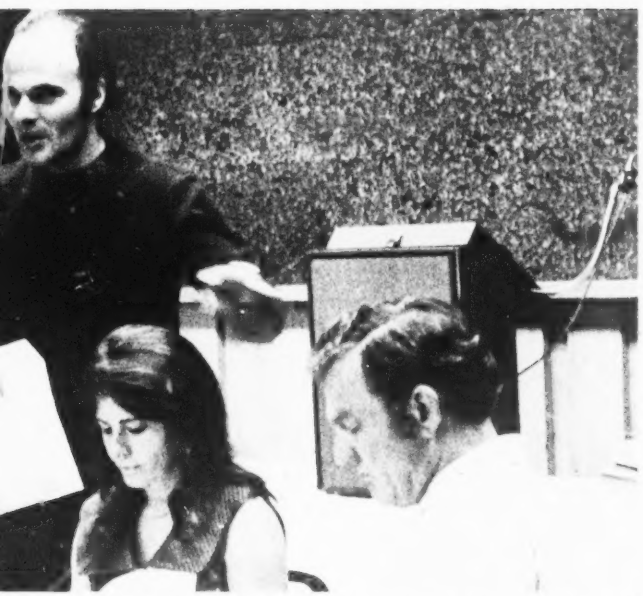

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Interviewer I: You would really like to be able to please us?

Interviewer II: Well . . . it's all right . . . .

Interviewer II in both instances had difficulty dealing directly with what he perceived as an affectionate bid. Interviewer I, on the other hand, demonstrated dealing more directly with such communication. Let's consider another vignette.

Student C: I was so d--- mad.

Interviewer I: You were quite angry.

Interviewer II: You could have punched the guy.

How unusual it is to hear an honest response. How typical it is for us to clean up communications, thoughts, and feelings so that they are "appropriate" for discussion. It's as if we wish to minimize the affect or strength of people's messages, in essence, to tell them they must not feel that way.

As you read the next vignette, ask yourself what you would say if you wanted to communicate very honestly with what you heard. As you read the interviewer statement, remember there is no one right response.

Housewife B: When he acts like that and he comes around and humiliates me he just . . .

Interviewer: When he does that, it sounds as if you feel enraged, . . . furious.

There are times when an interviewer deliberately chooses to respond in a non-specific, less than completely honest way. Usually he does this because he thinks the client is unable at that time to deal directly with the core of some of the more frightening aspects of his concerns. But more often, an interviewer choose to be less than honest out of his own concerns and his own fears. Usually the client realizes that the interviewer is not dealing squarely with what was presented.

Combination Responses

Although the four elements of interview communication—exploratory responses, affective-cognitive responses, listening responses, and honest responses—have been discussed as separate entities, effective interviewers gen-

erally respond to clients' statements in ways which encompass all these dimensions.

Actress A: It's so exciting being here. I've learned so much and I've met all sorts of interesting people and now I get a chance to do this work. It's really great.

Interviewer: It's all so exciting and so much fun. But what especially?

This interviewer dealt with the actress' affect, gave evidence he was listening honestly, labeled what he heard, and ended on an exploratory level.

For the remaining vignettes, assume the client is talking directly to you as interviewer. Can you come up with a response for each which encompasses all four elements of effective interview communication?

Actress A: Oh, I met this med student and he is nice and he is good looking, too. And, . . . I think he likes me.

Interviewer:

Housewife B: I'm wondering if I should divorce him . . . at my age . . . what would happen? I might not find anyone at all.

Interviewer:

Student C: At school they said to my son, "So you're thinking of going to college. Is that right?" But, they said it in such a way as if they were surprised or, I don't know, just the very fact they had to ask made me feel bad. What's going through their heads when they ask a thing like that? They don't ask other people, only the Black kids. It's a real put down!

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Interviewer:

Actor D: I don't understand how all this happened. I try hard, but there are just so many things to do. It gets so difficult, I just feel like giving up.

Interviewer:

Would your responses encourage clients to tell more, to dig more deeply, to expand on what they have said, to learn more about themselves, to behave differently? Expert interviewers perhaps learn intuitively to include different response elements of effective interviewer communication. It is suggested, however, that ABE interviewers become familiar with the four types of responses and practice using them in simulated vignettes. Otherwise, they probably will not use combination responses when interviewing and counseling students.

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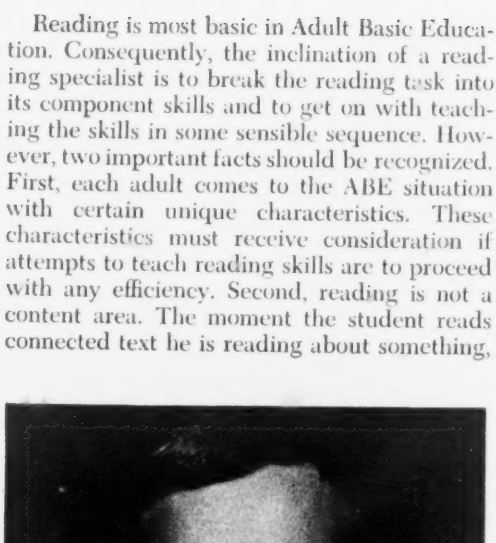
Reading is most basic in Adult Basic Education. Consequently, the inclination of a reading specialist is to break the reading task into its component skills and to get on with teaching the skills in some sensible sequence. However, two important facts should be recognized. First, each adult comes to the ABE situation with certain unique characteristics. These characteristics must receive consideration if attempts to teach reading skills are to proceed with any efficiency. Second, reading is not a content area. The moment the student reads connected text he is reading about something,



This article was adapted from a presentation made by Dr. Wayne Otto (Professor of Curriculum and Instruction; The University of Wisconsin; Madison, Wisconsin) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held at Atwood Lodge on July 19-21, 1971.

and he has gone beyond a strict skill development focus in reading instruction. Thus, the total context of the ABE program must receive consideration when the content of reading instruction is selected. Furthermore, any consideration of skill development in reading must go beyond the specific skills to the learner as a person and to the context in which instruction is given.

Facilitation of Learning

Carl Rogers in his book *Freedom to Learn*[1] listed what he calls principles or hypotheses relevant to learning and its facilitation. Ten points made by Rogers, viewed as a set of assumptions, can be extremely relevant to the subject of teaching adults to read.

1. *Human beings have a natural potentiality for learning.* Human beings are curious and eager to learn unless or until their enthusiasm is blunted by unsatisfactory learning experiences. Most illiterate adults have had many unsatisfactory learning experiences and their enthusiasm for learning, at least academic learning, has been blunted. An ABE teacher's main responsibility, then, is to see that conditions are such that each learner's potential and desire for learning is revitalized. This will not happen until the student comes to believe, once again, in his own potential for learning.

2. *Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student as having relevance for his own purposes.* Phonics generalizations, sight words, and letter forms will be learned most efficiently by a student who sees their relevance for his own purposes. Teachers will be most helpful when they make it a point first, to discover, through diagnosis, what subject m
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3. *Learning which involves a change in self organization (in the perception of oneself) is threatening and tends to be resisted.* If an adult who has never been successful in academic pursuits enrolls in ABE and begins to do acceptable work, his spouse, neighbors, or teachers are apt to tell him that they knew all along he could do it if he tried harder. In effect, his new success earns him not praise for doing well now but criticism for having done badly before. Thus, the horns of the dilemma are to continue to do well and be blamed, or to quit ABE and be blamed. Teachers who recognize the possibility of such dilemmas are in a position to help students resolve them.

4. *Those learnings which are threatening to the self are more easily perceived and assimilated when external threats are at a minimum.*

5. *When threat to the self is low, experiences can be perceived in different fashion and learning can proceed.*

Assumptions four and five are closely related. Together they underscore the need to remove external pressures and potential sources of ridicule or scorn from the ABE teaching situation. The illiterate adult almost always has good reason for feeling threatened and inadequate, so further demonstration of his deficiencies is not needed. Understanding, support, successful experiences, and positive self evaluation are needed.

6. *Much significant learning is acquired through doing.* Any teacher who has seen the spurt in learning that usually accompanies introduction of a driver's manual as the basic text with disabled teen-age readers needs no further evidence that this assumption is sound.

[1]Carl Rogers, *Freedom to Learn.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

7. *Learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning process.*

8. *Self-initiated learning which involves the whole person (feelings as well as intellect) is the most lasting and pervasive.*

9. *Independence, creativity, and self-reliance are all facilitated when self-criticism and self-evaluation are basic and evaluation by others is of secondary importance.*

10. *The most socially useful learning in the modern world is learning the process of learning.*

The four assumptions above have a single theme. They call for the involvement of the learner in his own learning. They underscore the need for teachers to have a positive perception of each learner's potential for progress through total participation, self-assessment, and self-direction.

The key principle implicit in all assumptions listed here is that human beings will learn. If this is so, what then is the function of the teacher? In teaching adults to read, how can the teacher help learners to focus on what they need to know? He must identify critical objectives, determine which have and which have not been attained, and decide how to pursue the latter. The teacher's function, then, is to facilitate learning by providing an organized approach.

A Framework for Organizing Reading Instruction

To facilitate the teaching of essential skills in reading a five-part framework for organizing instruction is suggested.

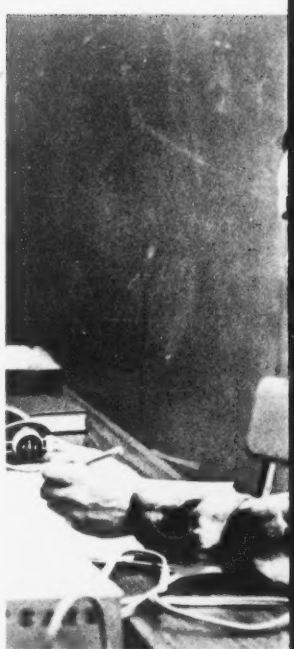
1. *Content.* The most basic task in a skill-centered approach to teaching reading is the identification of content which is considered essential to success. Unless and until this is done instructional efforts will tend to be dispersed, shotgun style, at the discretion of each teacher. Yet, up to the present time, efforts to specify essential content have been rare. What written efforts there have been related to scope and sequence have not been very definitive except in the basic skill areas, where essential content usually amounts to a discussion of essential skills.

Even when focus is limited to the basic skill areas, opinions about what is essential are likely to differ for the foreseeable future. However, if there is local agreement on essential skills, then the identification of pupils' skill deficiencies and focused skill teaching can proceed in a reasonable straight-forward manner.

2. *Objectives.* Once essential skills have been identified, the next step is to specify objectives in behavioral terms for each skill. A meaningfully stated objective identifies and describes behaviors considered appropriate to a desired outcome, and may specify the conditions under which the behavior is expected to occur. Objectives that are so stated permit decisions regarding (1) experiences that are most likely to produce the desired behaviors, (2) situations in which the behaviors are appropriate, and (3) evaluation of the approach designed to produce the behavior.

Objectives related to essential skills should specify mastery levels for performance. Each student should be expected to master each objective—for example, 80 percent or better of the related test items. A student's performance, then, is assessed with regard to an absolute referent (the objective) rather than a relative referent (the performance of his peers).

3. *Assessment.* Adequately stated objectives define essential skills in terms of observable behaviors. They permit examination of the skill development status of individuals in order to determine their strengths and weaknesses. This examination of specific skill development can proceed through the use of formal paper-and-pencil tests or informal observations of relevant behaviors. However assessed, the objective serves to specify relevant behaviors



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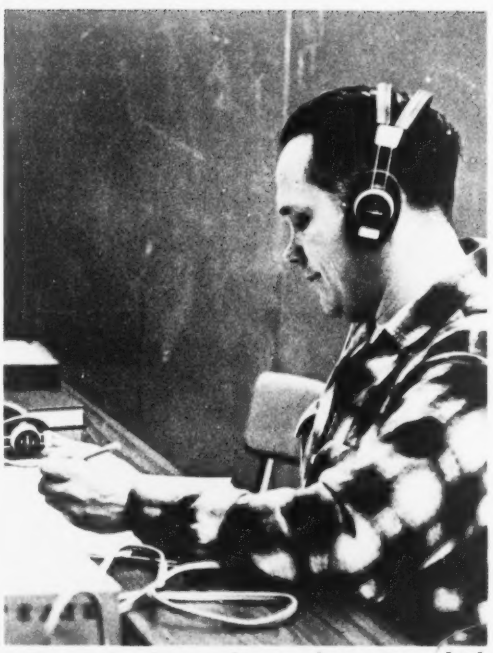

and permits the teacher to determine which skills have or have not been mastered.

4. *Instruction.* Organized reading instruction, then, depends on objectives and assessment. The teacher knows what constitutes adequate performance with regard to specific skills and determines the current skill development status of individuals. He then devises appropriate instruction to meet individual student's needs for specific skill development. In practice, this means that the teacher selects from the array of available instructional materials and activities those which appear to be most appropriate for a given student in a given situation at a given point in time.

At the present time virtually no definitive knowledge has been generated regarding the systematic matching of students and instruction. The teacher must assume major responsibility. The task of working out instructional details rests squarely with him. There will

always be a number of ways to pursue a given objective, but well stated objectives will—at the very least—specify the goals of instruction.

5. *Evaluation.* Finally, evaluation is necessary. In the area of reading, the pay-off from the instructional sequence that goes from identification of essential skills to statement of objectives to assessment of individual's specific skill development to focused instruction is functional reading ability—that is, the ability to cope with the reading tasks encountered both in and out of school. If the desired end product is not forthcoming, there is reason to examine each of the instructional components to determine where the process has broken down.

Guidelines for Efficient Teaching of Reading

Ten guidelines[2] can be applied to efficient teaching—whether it is remedial or developmental, whether it is for children or adults.

1. *Secure the learner's cooperation.* An active participant is a more efficient learner than a passive spectator and, ultimately, the success or failure of teaching efforts depends on the involvement of the learner.

2. *Offer instruction at the learner's level.* To do this, the teacher must first look at the student's current level of skill development and at his status with regard to mastery and non-mastery of essential skills. Once this is done, the next step is to match students with appropriate instructional techniques and materials.

3. *Take small steps.* The teacher will do well to borrow a basic tenent of programmed instruction: Make each step so small that a correct response is virtually assured. For example, if the impr
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[2]Wayne Otto and Richard A. McMenemy, *Corrective and Remedial Teaching.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.

always be a number of ways to pursue a given objective, but well stated objectives will—at the very least—specify the goals of instruction.

5. *Evaluation.* Finally, evaluation is necessary. In the area of reading, the pay-off from the instructional sequence that goes from identification of essential skills to statement of objectives to assessment of individual's specific skill development to focused instruction is functional reading ability—that is, the ability to cope with the reading tasks encountered both in and out of school. If the desired end product is not forthcoming, there is reason to examine each of the instructional components to determine where the process has broken down.

Guidelines for Efficient Teaching of Reading

Ten guidelines[2] can be applied to efficient teaching—whether it is remedial or developmental, whether it is for children or adults.

1. *Secure the learner's cooperation.* An active participant is a more efficient learner than a passive spectator and, ultimately, the success or failure of teaching efforts depends on the involvement of the learner.

2. *Offer instruction at the learner's level.* To do this, the teacher must first look at the student's current level of skill development and at his status with regard to mastery and non-mastery of essential skills. Once this is done, the next step is to match students with appropriate instructional techniques and materials.

3. *Take small steps.* The teacher will do well to borrow a basic tenent of programmed instruction: Make each step so small that a correct response is virtually assured. For example, if the improvement of handwriting is the goal, it is realistic not to expect the student to move directly from habitual illegible letter forms to the perfect models provided by commercial materials. Instead, the student should be led toward the goal through a series of minimal changes for which interim models are provided. The teacher should help the student to set realistic goals for himself. Unless he perceives a small step as one that is significant, the student is not likely to be satisfied with this step.

4. *Reinforce success.* In many instances a success experience is its own reinforcement. The assumption in most programmed learning is that small steps insure correct responses and that correct responses are rewarding to the learner. A related assumption is that the learner knows immediately whether or not his response was correct. Reinforcement can, of course, come from the teacher and be either tangible (a letter grade, a pat on the back) or intangible (a smile, a nod, an oral comment) depending on the needs of the individual involved. The effective teacher knows when a student has a success experience and what constitutes reinforcement for that particular student at that particular moment. Ultimately, the student must derive his own satisfaction from his own success experiences.

5. *Keep learning tasks and materials meaningful.* Students will have few success experiences if materials have limited meaning, if tasks are not clearly understood. The teacher must be constantly alert to see that materials are meaningful for the particular students being taught and that assigned tasks are understood.

6. *Facilitate remembering.* Old learnings tend to stand in the way of new learnings and new learnings tend to blur old learnings because similarities in what is known and what is freshly learned tend to merge, thus interfering with both efficient learning and remem-

[2]Wayne Otto and Richard A. McMenemy, *Corrective and Remedial Teaching.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.

bering. The teacher can combat interference by seeing that the unique features of each new learning are stressed and understood. The more clear the differentiation, the less likely that interference will cause forgetting. In spelling, for example, the *ie* in words like *field* and *yield* would be stressed; in letter perception, the difference between letters like *p* and *q* and *b* and *d;* in sight word recognition, the *e* and *a* of *then* and *than.*

With some tasks, the best means to facilitate remembering is to provide for overlearning. In the basic skill areas a number of tasks should appropriately be overlearned through repetitive practice (drill). Production of letter forms in handwriting, for example, should be overlearned so that they are made without conscious thought of the muscular movements involved. Service words in reading (*this, that, then, and, but,* etc.) should be overlearned to the point where they are recognized instantly. Proper language forms, too, should be overlearned to the point of instant recall and automatic use.

7. *Encourage discovery of relationships.* When students are able to discover important relationships and generalizations for themselves, transfer to new tasks and situations is better. For example, a phonics principle that is merely presented by the teacher and memorized by the student is not as likely to be applied in independent reading as a generalization that is discovered by the student.

8. *Guard against motivation that is too intense.* Too much of any good thing can be harmful. Motivation that is too intense is likely to be accompanied by distracting emotions and limited cue utilization, both of which interfere with efficient learning. Intense motivation appears to be particularly questionable when the learning task is complex.

Movement along a continuum that goes from healthy achievement motivation to anxiety to fear will differ greatly from one student to another, so it is difficult to generalize about optimum motivation for individuals. The teacher should, however, be sensitive to symptoms of anxiety and fear and adapt motivational techniques as needed.

9. *Provide spaced practice.* Perhaps little can be done to glamorize the overlearning recommended for certain basic tasks—*e.g.,* sight recognition of frequently used words, automatic production of letter forms. Nevertheless, where there is high response similarity —e.g., sight words similar in configuration: *horse-house, then-them;* letter forms similar in conformation: *d-b, p-q, m-n*—spaced or distributed practice will produce better results than massed practice. Long term retention appears to be improved by spaced practice. For these and other reasons, the most obvious being relief from monotony, frequent rest periods and changes in activity during remedial work sessions are recommended.

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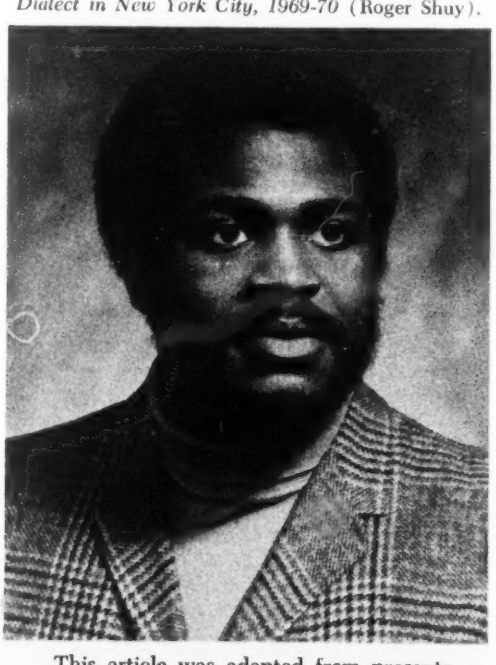
10. *Build a backlog of success experiences.* Tolerance for failure is based largely upon a backlog of success. The learner who has a history of success experiences has that backlog to sustain his efforts when he encounters difficulty. The student with learning problems, on the other hand, expects to fail in academic areas and has little reason to try again when he fails at a given task. An extremely important function of an effective teacher, then, is to see that each student adds regularly to his store of success experiences.

Attention to these guidelines for the teaching of reading—as well as to the basic principles related to learning and to the need for an organized framework for instruction—will help to secure and sustain an adult learner's interest and cooperation, both of which are necessary before effective learning can take place.

Black dialect, or Black expression, has important implications for teaching reading and writing skills to Black adult learners. Geneva Smitherman, a linguist at Wayne State University, in the prospectus of her forthcoming book, *The Black Idiom*, states that recent sociolinguistic studies conducted in urban areas[1] have produced empirical evidence validating the existence of differences between lower-class Black and middle-class white English. Thus, the controversy over whether or not there is a Black dialect is no longer debatable. What does remain debatable is: 1) the origin of Black speech; 2) the significance of the differences between the current dialects of Black and white English; and 3) what, if anything, educators should do about Black dialect.

[1]For example, *The Detroit Dialect Study, 1966-68* (Walter A. Wolfram and Roger Shuy) and *Negro Dialect in New York City, 1969-70* (Roger Shuy).



This article was adapted from presentations by Darnell Williams (Instructor of English; The Ohio State University; Columbus, Ohio) at Adult Basic Education Workshops held at Atwood Lodge on July 19-21, 1971 and in Columbus on August 9-11, 1971.

Origin of Black Speech

The traditional theory of American linguists and dialectologists[2] has been that the slaves, being stripped of virtually all ties with their African culture, were forbidden to speak in their native tongues and thus compelled to learn the English of their overseers. Since these early white settlers came from various regions of England, their speech, and consequently that of their Negro slaves, is traceable to British-based dialects. As the English language changed, the speech of white Southern aristocrats changed accordingly. However, since Negroes, and to some extent their lower-class white overseers, did not directly participate in the Southern elitist traditions, their language changed more slowly. Thus, Negro speech and Southern white lower-class speech were nearly identical. With the migration from the rural South to the urban North (and the urban South), the lower-class rural Southern whites became assimilated and over a period of years, their speech lost most of its Southern regional characteristics. With Blacks, however, this assimilation did not occur since Black people in large cities were forced to live in segregated communities. Therefore,

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A second theory on the origin of American Negro speech comes primarily from cultural anthropologists like Melville Herskovits[3] and recently from Creole linguists like Beryl Bailey.[4] In 1941 Herskovits attempted to discredit the cultural obliteration theory by establishing the existence of African traditions in American Negro culture. In his chapter on language, he suggested the existence of Africanisms in American Negro speech, relying heavily on the yet unpublished work of Lorenzo Dow Turner. A few years later, Turner published his *Africanisms in the Gullah Dialect*.[5] Relying on his knowledge of African languages, Turner demonstrated the similarity between certain lexical items in African dialects and Gullah Negro speech.

Recently, Creole linguists[6] have focused on syntactical similarities between American Negro speech, Gullah Negro speech, Creole, and the pidgin English of certain West African cultures. Gullah, Creole, and West African Pidgin English have African dialects in their prehistory. These Creole linguists maintain that although one will find few residual Africanisms in the lexicon of American Negro speech, one finds many similarities in syntactical constructions. (This was a hypothesis

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[2]Raven I. McDavid and George P. Krapp among others.

[3]Melville Herskovits, *The Myth of The Negro Past*. Boston: Beacon Press, 1958.

[4]Beryl Bailey, *Jamaican Creole Syntax*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1966.

[5]Lorenzo Dow Turner, *Africanisms in the Gullah Dialect*. New York: Arno Press, 1969.

[6]Particularly William A. Stewart, Beryl Bailey, and Jean Malstrom.

that Herskovits had also suggested but which Turner's work failed to demonstrate since Turner concentrated on word for word correspondencies.) Thus a third possibility on the origin of American Negro speech is that the slaves simply grafted items of English lexicon onto the grammatical system of their native African dialects. Since the grammatical structure of a language is highly resistant to change while vocabulary is not, what one sees operating in the speech of today's urban Negroes—according to this theory—is the residue of a system of language with an African-based syntax and an Anglo-based lexicon. (As for the commonalities between American Negro speech and Southern white speech, these could very well be explained by borrowings between the groups—*i.e.*, Southern whites could have borrowed from Blacks just as Blacks borrowed from whites.)

Differences Between Black and White Dialects

One school of educational thought about Black dialect argues that the differences between Black ghetto English and white middle-class English are crucial differences that point to the limited verbal abilities of Black students. Since cognition involves language and since Black ghetto language does not have certain language concepts (*e.g.*, according to Bereiter,[7] "if-not" used in logical deductions), Black ghetto children cannot formulate cognitive concepts. Further, since there is a mismatch between Black ghetto speech and the English of basic readers, Black ghetto speech impedes the process of learning to read.[8] Following this line of reasoning, some educators argue that Black ghetto students ought to be taught so-called
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[7]Carl Bereiter, *Language Programs for the Disadvantaged*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

[8]Joan and Stephen Baratz and Roger Shuy, *Teaching Black Children to Read*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969.

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The second school educational thought is that there are only limited and superficial differences between Black and white English. These theorists postulate that the language concepts of Black ghetto youth are simply different; that Black students can manipulate cognitive constructs in their own dialect (*i.e.*, they can find other language structures with which to manipulate "if-not" situations); and they can be highly verbal in their own dialect. However, while the differences between Black and white English do not impede significant communication, the differences do carry social stigma and can impede the Black ghetto student's opportunities in the socio-economic world. Thus, this group of educators contends that Black ghetto students should be allowed to retain their own dialect (which they'll need to function in their ghetto communities), but at the same time the students should be drilled in prestige dialect patterns as necessary strategic tools for socio-economic mobility.

[7]Carl Bereiter, *Language Programs for the Disadvantaged*. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

[8]Joan and Stephen Baratz and Roger Shuy, *Teaching Black Children to Read*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969.

Teaching English as a Second Dialect

In the teaching of English as a second dialect, the need for good textbooks and resource materials is urgent. Materials have been published on the linguistic characteristics of non-standard English and some books are available on the methods of teaching standard English to non-standard speakers, but few applicable textbooks are available for classroom use. Materials available seem to stress vocabulary more than anything else, although it is assumed that students already have quite an extensive vocabulary.

In teaching standard English as a second dialect, teachers must not approach the students with the attitude that their dialect is "no good." Teachers must understand that a particular language evolves out of the environment and culture of a particular group of people. These people develop the necessary linguistic skills of their dialect in order to communicate effectively with members in their community. When adults from these communities enter an ABE classroom, they bring with them the necessary skills in their own dialect to talk about cultural patterns and experiences that are particular to their environment. Consequently, it is unjust to expect these adults to function in a foreign dialect (standard English). When they are presented with this foreign dialect, as well as the unfamiliar cultural patterns, they clam up.

Oftentimes, adult learners understand the language of the teacher, but are unable to produce it. Language is habit-forming. No one can effectively produce language which he does not use habitually. Since learners cannot use the standard English dialect with the same level of confidence that they can their own, they refuse to respond to the teacher. The

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teacher, now knowing the nature of language and perhaps having developed false assumptions about Black speech, may take the attitude that Black adult learners are non-verbal and intellectually inferior. If he takes this attitude, he furthers the frustrations of culturally and linguistically different adults.

University students from Appalachia and from Black communities often have dialect problems similar to those of ABE counterparts. Such university students are sometimes almost non-verbal in the classroom, because through the years, they have felt the sting of teachers' open and uncensored attack upon their speech patterns. Rather than experience humiliation, the students remain unexpressive. By robbing the students of their native abilities to express themselves, the teachers succeed in creating students who can neither write in their own dialect nor in standard English. What they write may be totally incomprehensible, for they are trying to produce a language which

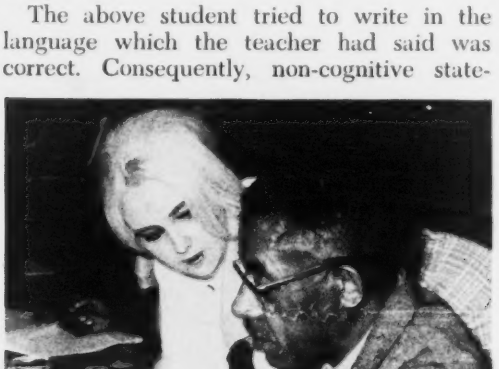
they think the teacher wants. Take the sample below which was written by a university freshman.

When one tries to avoid another person usually both will apparently meet each other. Although I will always think about some where I can not be found. Hiding from someone it is very hard because there are no special times that you will be seen. Also being my unexpected moment standing there gritty my teeth together have a bitter taste in my mouth. There was woodsy in the air with the sound of clinking in my ears. In conclusion there was only my shadow.

Preparing myself for my Geology test I had to periodically although I had the feeling of being certained about everything. While walking around I began to have tingle in my stomach. Also my eyes saw the glare of the golden sun shining down upon the beautiful green grass. I could hear the murmuring of the other students.

Today several things occur in my life for example finding out that one must give more than half of their time to their studies. Because only doing half is not enough for any individual in this world. Also another is becoming a mendicant is not a good life for me. Because you contiue asking for things from people they will start saying no. In conclusion you will find out that individual will never give more than half of them selves.

The above student tried to write in the language which the teacher had said was correct. Consequently, non-cognitive statements resulted. This is neither Black dialect nor standard English. It is nothing.



In order to avoid this kind of destruction, teachers should allow learners, particularly adult learners, to write in dialects that are native to them. Then, if the teacher is interested in guiding the students toward the standard, he will not have to untangle the "nothingness" students write in the unfamiliar dialect. If students, for example, are native speakers of Black dialect, they should be allowed to write in Black dialect. It is relatively simple to transfer Black dialect grammatical, syntactical, and lexical forms into standard English; but, it is impossible to do anything with the "nothingness" created by forcing the students to function in a dialect in which they have no facilities. Black English, as standard English, has grammatical and syntactical features. If the teachers would acquaint themselves with these features, it would be easy to contrast the dialects, thus making it easier for the students to acquire the standard forms. Examples follow:

Syntactical Feature	Black Dialect Example
Absence of copula or linking verb	*He slick.* *This my desk.*
Habitual *be*	*He usually be acting up.* *I usually be at Bill's house.*
Been or *done* plus past	*I been had it three years.* *I done forgot how that go.*
Use of *ain't*	*We ain't never go nowhere.*
Multiple negation	*Nobody didn't like her.* *We ain't never had no trouble.*
Negative auxiliary to begin sentence	*Can't none of them play ball.* *Ain't nobody run away.*
Pronominal apposition	*John he never come 'round.* *John I don't hardly see him.*
Embedded question inversion	*Amy wants to know can I come.* *She asked would you call her.*

Other features of
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Grammatical Form	Bl
-ed past tense	*Y*
-s present tense	*H*
-s possessive	*H*
-s plural	*It*

Consonant Cluster	Bl
-nd	*so*
-ft	*le*
-st	*te*
-sk	*m*
-sp	*w*
-nt	*co*
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Other features of Black dialect involve omission of ending grammatical forms and reduction of ending consonant clusters.

Grammatical Form	Black Dialect Example
-ed past tense	*Yesterday he jump on my bike and rode away.*
-s present tense	*He go to East High School.*
-s possessive	*He rides in the man car.*
-s plural	*It costs fifty cent every time.*

Consonant Cluster	Black Dialect Example
-nd	*soun'* for *sound*
-ft	*lef'* for *left*
-st	*tes'* for *test*
-sk	*mas'* for *mask*
-sp	*was'* for *wasp*
-nt	*coun'* for *count*
-ld	*col' for cold*

Since emphasis should be placed on constructing materials that are practical and functional, teachers of Black dialect speakers may find the following guideline questions useful when selecting or preparing materials.

- Are subject matter and learning activities familiar and interesting to Black students?
- Does the content, when possible, raise the self-esteem and status of the Black learner?

- Is the language used that of the student?
- Are the goals of each lesson clear, practical, and attainable?
- Does each lesson teach one or two concepts thoroughly?
- Do the materials motivate or encourage individual reading, speaking, and writing?
- Are both rural and urban settings represented?
- Are the values and life styles of minority groups represented?

These questions about the selection and development of teaching materials are raised because the emphasis in most current texts is either to change all forms of communication to the prestige dialect (standard English) or to stress the linguistic structure of the prestige dialect. When teachers realize that the primary function of any language is for communication among people of a particular ethnic or regional environment, the destructive attitudes about non-standard varieties of American English should change.

Teaching Standard English as an Alternate Dialect

In a classroom where there are speakers of dialects other than the prestige dialect, emphasis should not be upon change; instead, it should be upon expansion. Dialect expansion takes the language of the students as a base and expands it to include standard English forms. Besides expanding the vocabulary of the non-standard speakers, dialect expansion also serves to change or enlighten the attitudes of teachers concerning language and communication. For example:

- Dialect expansion serves to educate speakers of socially and academically acceptable varieties of English in the multiplicity of dialects and in the historical and arbitrary stigmatization of some dialects.
- Dialect expansion deters the wholesale social stratification of persons who speak a "non-standard" variety of American English.
- Dialect expansion allows students—whether adults or youths—to learn and communicate in their native dialect of American English.

When we go into a classroom to teach, it is very important that we understand the nature and function of language. We must understand the significance of language in the educational process. Below are concepts and attitudes that should be omnipresent every time we enter a classroom:

- Language is the medium for all learning.
- A student, be he adult or youth, speaks the language of his particular environment and culture. He also acquires the necessary skills in his language to function in his particular community.
- When a student enters school, he takes with him the cultural and linguistic experiences of his particular environment.

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- When a student enters school, he takes with him the cultural and linguistic experiences of his particular environment.

- When the student is expected to acquire reading skills in a language whose lexical, syntactical, and phonological systems are different than his, difficulties arise.
- Teachers must recognize that there are differences in the speech of Blacks and whites, in the speech of culturally different Americans, in the speech of persons from different geographical regions.
- Teaching materials used to teach culturally different students, especially at the beginning levels, must contain within their content environmental situations with which the students can identify.
- By teaching a student to read in his own dialect, the acquisition of an alternate dialect (standard English) is much less difficult.
- Black-Americans, Mexican-Americans, Indian-Americans, and other hyphenated Americans experience difficulties in reading because they are taught in a dialect with a linguistic system different from their own.
- Teachers must no longer function under the assumption that non-standard English speakers are inferior intellectually.

Many ABE teachers of English as a second language have had the opportunity to attend workshops and seminars which stress modern techniques in foreign language teaching. Some have had college training in this area. Many have also attended training sessions devoted to basic education for disadvantaged adult learners. Some have been college-trained along this line, as well. I am troubled, however, about the possibility of compartmentalization, a luxury that only the academic specialist can afford. An ESL-ABE teacher must bring many skills and awarenesses to bear in the classroom. Therefore, instead of discussing just language teaching in this presentation, I will offer some thoughts about the total job the ESL-ABE teacher should set out to do.

I cannot claim even minimal competence in many areas I will touch on—maturation, learning psychology, language acquisition, basic education, community involvement, and others. How ironic it is that we expect ESL-ABE teachers to exhibit some degree of competence in all these areas! We never hear an "expert" talk about any more than one or two of them.

Adult

Though it is an old device, I will approach my topic through definition and examine the terms in *Adult Basic Education* and *English as a Second Language*. Each term will be looked at in relation to *adult*, for that is the key.

What is an adult? The two definitions in my small desk dictionary which apply at all are as follows:

1. a mature person; man or woman . . . .
2. in *law*, a person who has come of age.

These definitions do not help much. That a person has become legally responsible for his acts tells us something about society's regard for a certain age level but little else. The first definition, which uses *mature*, holds more promise. For the impact of this, I quote from the adjective definition for *mature*:

1. full-grown, as plants or animals; ripe, as fruits; fully developed, as a person, a mind, etc. 2. fully or highly developed, perfected, worked out, considered, etc.: as, a *mature* scheme. 3. of a state of full development: as, a person of *mature* age. 4. due, payable: said of a note, bond, etc. 5. in geology, having reached maximum development and accentuation of form, or maximum vigor and efficiency of action: said of streams adjusted to their surroundings, topography resulting from erosion, etc.

If all adults are mature, especially in mind, we should have no need for ABE or any other form of adult education. If *maturity* means that the adult has reached the full development of his powers, then why suggest fuller development of skills and understandings? I contend that *adult* refers to a different kind of maturity than any listed above and that the difference is not a simple one of age.

Perhaps most important, an adult has experience. It is not always the kind of experience our society admires or rewards, but it is viable life experience.

An adult has—more completely than a child—an identity closely bound to his cultural background. For many ABE students this means a clear-cut identity as Afro American, Mexican American, or other cultural subdivision. These identities often bring up notions of inferiority, low social status, and low economic conditions. Each group has, as well, a set of positive identifications which, perhaps more than group caricatures, guide the individual in his a
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This article was adapted from a presentation made by Dr. Dennis R. Preston (State University of New York—Fredonia) at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held in Hudson, Ohio on May 8, 1971.

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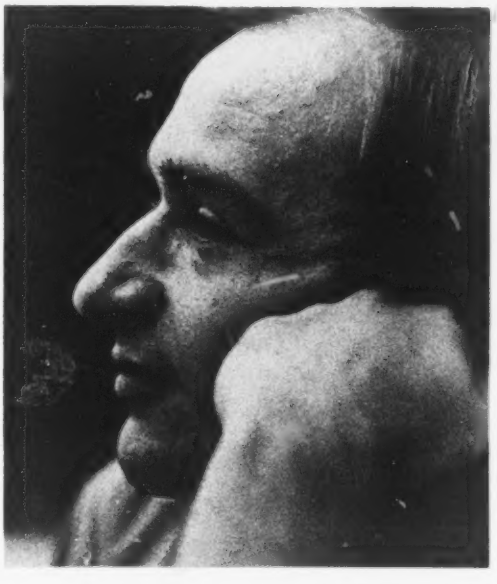
- Instead of looking for novelty, an adult is usually a believer in his experience. This leads him to generalize experiences and classify predictions on the basis of past performances.
- When learning things, the adult consciously uses numerous rational mental faculties. For this reason, he often requires the "whys" and "hows" of instruction that children may put aside in favor of exposure to the process itself.

Adult Education

Specialists in learning theory and growth and development could provide a more accurate definition of *adult*, but the characteristics just listed are extremely important in ESL-ABE. Tentatively accepting my definition of



adult, we will examine the other components of the ESL-ABE job. The term *adult* remains our primary concern, but *education* can be considered an important secondary concern. Rather than fool around with a definition of *education* that would fill many pages and satisfy no one, let us develop the notion of *adult education* in terms of the generalizations set forth for *adult*.

If the adult is experienced, it follows that adult education is not the pouring of information into an empty shell or vacuum. Most preschool and primary grades notions of concept formation have no place in adult education. *The experience of the adult demands that adult education be conceived of as taking someone from someplace to another, not from noplace to somewhere.* This suggestion should influence teacher attitude as well as choices of curriculum and instructional materials.

One of the most significant life experiences of an ABE student is the social and cultural background from which he comes. The utilization of this cultural background as educational content is not only defensible but desirable. In short, adult education must involve not only the learning of things but also

an increasing awareness of who I am in terms of my people, their accomplishments, their suffering, their greatnesses, their failures.

Adult education should move in the direction of the adult's expectations. The teacher should neither surprise nor disappoint him. By this I mean several things. If the adult "expects" education to go on in a certain way, we should not challenge immediately his beliefs about what he is to learn and how he is to go about learning it. To provide a concrete example from ESL, according to nearly all methods books in the field, vocabulary is not as important a goal in foreign language learning as structure. Contrary to this, the universally held belief is that to learn a foreign language is to memorize its words. "How foolish," sophisticated foreign language teachers exclaim, certain in their convictions that one who knew *all* the words of a language could not make himself understood unless he had some elementary grasp of the basic structural units. U
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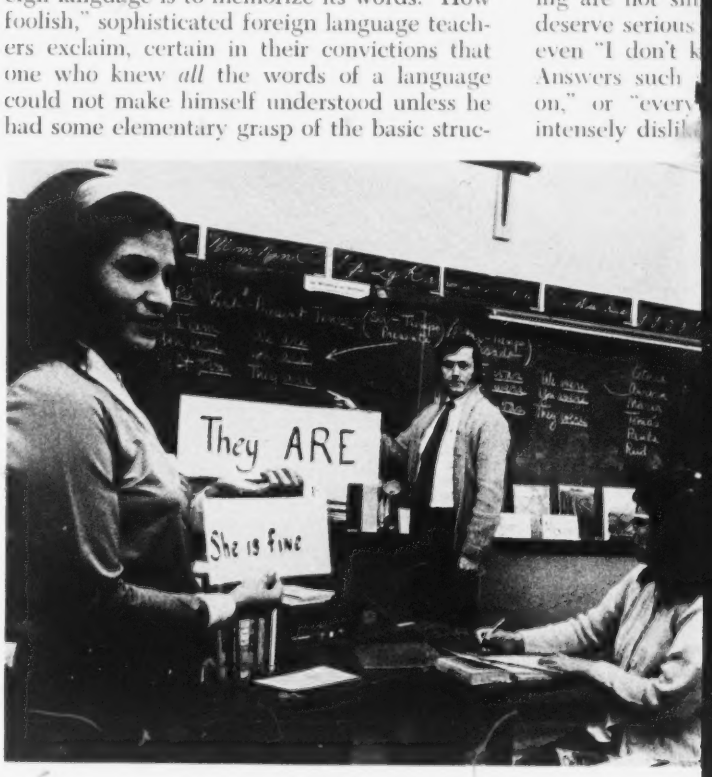

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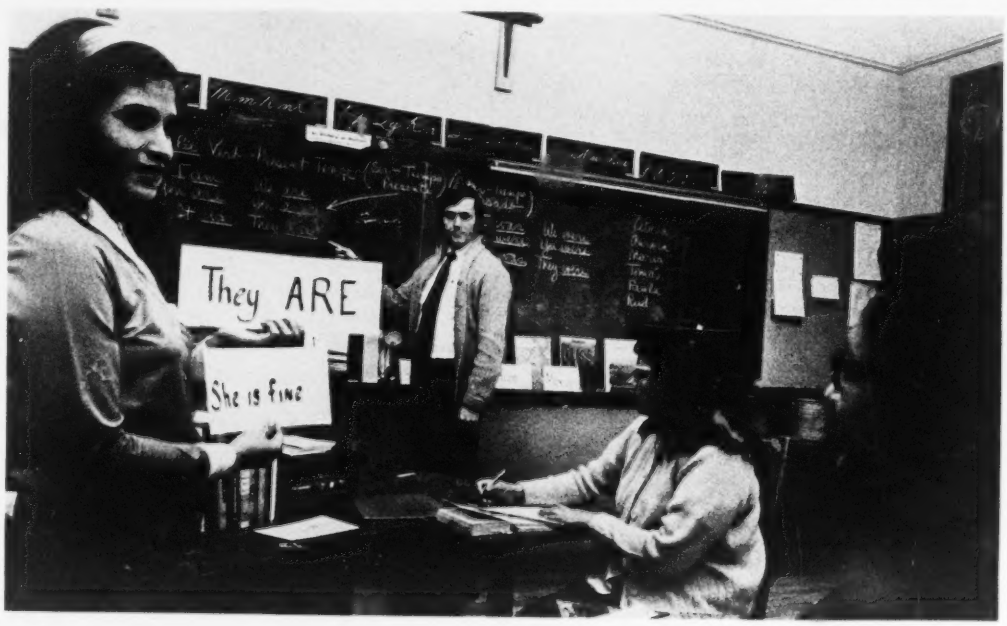
Finally, the adult is a thinking, reasoning being. There is no room in adult education for mindless activities, even if they lead to productive ends. The adult's desires in learning are not simple and his deeper questions deserve serious attention and honest answers, even "I don't know, but I'll try to find out." Answers such as "because," "you'll see later on," or "everybody does it that way" are intensely disliked by most adult learners.



Adult Basic Education

Continuing with definitions and bringing our understanding of *adult education* to bear on the term *basic*, a frequent definition of adult *basic* education is a list of skills necessary for successful living in American society. A particular list may go like this:

Language Skills. The ability to read, write, speak and understand the language of the society.

Computational Skills. The ability to handle money figures and other mathematical skills necessary to daily living and occupational requirements.

Social Skills. The ability to seek help, advice, reward, information, and other necessaries for getting along in our complex environment.

Personal Skills. The ability to care for one's person, health, money, home, spouse, and children.

Psychological Skills. The ability to cope with failure, disappointment, prejudice, ill health, poverty, and other things that exert pressure on the individual.

Such lists are often more detailed, but the skills of ABE can generally be put in the same five categories. How do these skills relate to our earlier understandings of *adult* and *adult education*? Nearly everything we have observed up to now about *adult* and *education* has had very little to do with the development of specific skills. For years, people seemed to consider survival strategies as immediately necessary for ABE students, that such strategies were the B of ABE. Now, however, we may be moving too far in the direction of "person-training" as opposed to education. *Certain basic skills must be taught and they must be practical.*

On the other hand, basic education for adults should add up to more than bringing to the student those subjects he missed out on long ago. In short, I believe that we have placed emphasis on the top of the list long enough and need to consider whether the social, personal, and psychological skills of the ABE student are being sufficiently strengthened.

An adult cannot learn basic skills in a vacuum any more than he can have information "piped into" him which does not affect, and is not affected by, the adult experience discussed earlier. I would like to see the basic in adult basic education expanded or re-expanded to include educational as well as training information. I am especially concerned that learning about self be made an important part of the ABE experience.

Language

Three items remain for definition: *English*, *second*, and *language*. As a linguist, I choose to begin with *language*, but keep in mind that our concern is in the context of *adult*, *basic*, and *education*. Many people are quite competent in the area of the English language and many are also competent in the area of second language teaching. My concern is to put this competency into the ABE context. Providing information from linguistics and foreign language teaching methodology in complete ignorance of the context of application would not be helpful.

What, then, is a language? Most introductory texts in linguistics say that language is some arbitrary system of sounds used for the exchange of ideas, concepts, information, and the like among human beings. It is an arbitrary arrangement because the sound systems of no two languages are exactly alike. There seems to be no necessary connection between the sounds and the ideas they represent, if we choose to ignore a small number of "sound-symbolism" groups such as *sludge*, *slush*, *slop*, *slick*, and *slimy*. Language is, however, a system. That is, I cannot communicate in English by saying things like "Dog and the open door the in let." I must, somehow, use some appropriate order as "Open the door and let the dog in," though I have the option

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Before I discuss *language* in the ABE context, some recent ideas from newer schools of linguistics need to be considered. I say this not to annoy you with the fact that we have found our system of grammatical analysis old-fashioned and out-of-date, but because I sincerely believe that these newer views of language have a significant relationship to ABE.

First, contrary to the ideas most linguists had for years, we have begun to believe that language is not entirely a learned capacity. In fact, most recent linguists agree that the capacity to learn language is innate and that that capacity is more definite than simply a "predisposition" or "learning set." How is it that language is in any sense innate since all

languages are so radically different? The similarity among languages is at a deeper level than the actual strings of sounds produced in the language act. This similarity is in what most modern linguists have come to regard as the "deep structure" of languages, as opposed to their "surface structure." Perhaps a few illustrations will help clear up this concept of deep versus surface structure. Looking only at English, how do we account for the fact that the following sentences "mean the same thing" but "have different grammatical structures."

It bothers John to have to leave.
To have to leave bothers John.

Modern grammarians simply note that one deep structure account of both sentences is adequate: *It—for John to have to leave—bothers John.* In fact, if we change this to an even "deeper" structure *(It—John has to leave —bothers John)* we may include the following sentences along with the two above.

His having to leave bothers John.
Having to leave bothers John.
It bothers John, having to leave.
It bothers John, his having to leave.
That he has to leave bothers John.
It bothers John that he has to leave.

Some grammarians will note that I left out other synonomous passive counterparts, but I am not concerned that you see all the possible surface structure variations. What concerns me is that these surface sentences derive from one deep structure: *It—John has to leave—bothers John.* In short, deep structure is conceptual. It is the collection of paths we may choose among to bring our conceptual sentence to the surface in some approved-of fashion. This rather recent notion of the conceptual structure of language and of the mental devices necessary to its elaboration suggests that not only are there numerous surface structure realizations of a smaller set of deep structures in one language but that there also exists a considerable similarity among the world's languages at the deepest structure levels. That is, such devices as possession, specification, reflexivity, embedding of sentences, and so on are human language operations which are specified at such deep levels that we find no language without them.

Second, it was once believed that as persons approached adulthood their language learning facility wasted away. The newer thinking is that as persons go further and further away from childhood their language learning ability becomes over-specified. That is, the innate capacity to learn language has been subjected to the surface structure rules of a particular language and open form categories are no longer available for the general process of language learning.

If two notions of language discussed above are correct (and I do not suggest that they are universally agreed upon or that they are the only recent suggestions in linguistics which have bearing on ESL in ABE), we might expect the following changes in our attitude toward language in the ABE context:

- Language is not a set of simple habits. It is a complex of learning, habit, innate ability, and other factors. And, since language is not exclusively habit, we must stop treating language learning sessions for adults as

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- Language is not a set of simple habits. It is a complex of learning, habit, innate ability, and other factors. And, since language is not exclusively habit, we must stop treating language learning sessions for adults as if they were exclusively habit-formation activities. In particular, we must make some plans for the adult's creative use of language, as well as the repetitive.
- The adult, even more strongly than the child, resists learning things which have not been explained, reasoned, and justified. If only on these grounds, we can justify the use of explanation in ABE language classes along with practice, drill, and other time-honored techniques.
- Making mistakes does not necessarily lead to bad habits. Adults, in particular, should be allowed to test their fluency in ways which do not come up to the full surface structure realizations of sentences in a given language. Furthermore, we deny people the opportunity to adjust the conceptual structure of the language in a natural and direct way if we insist on only accurate surface structure performances.

- Finally, *basic*, as well as *adult*, must be a guiding word in attitude toward *language* in ABE. In short, first things first. No matter what "new ideas" come from linguistics, foreign language teaching, and learning theory, the adult learner's emergency needs (and one of them is the language of the society, if he does not possess it) should come first.

Second Language

A second language, as opposed to a foreign language, is a language one learns in order to carry on the daily affairs of his life. Though it may not be the language of his home or even the language of his closest friends and associates, it is the language of the society in which he resides, at least for part of his life. A tourist, on the other hand, may use a foreign language. Although he may reside for some time in a country where his native language is not the medium of communication, he is not dependent on a second language for his livelihood. He will go home. Many adults in American society who speak English poorly or not at all will not leave our country. Unless they learn English as a second language they will live, work, and die in an unfamiliar linguistic environment.

We can and should settle for less more quickly in second language learning as opposed to foreign language learning. We should allow considerable more casting about and trial-and-error, even though the ultimate goal demands greater fluency than that normally achieved in foreign language learning. I account for this apparent paradox in three ways:

- The ABE language learner has immediate, emergency goals as well as long-range goals.
- The notions of deep-structure competence suggest that mistake making is not exclusively bad habit formation but may entail the rearranging of the conceptual, or deep, structures of the new language.

- The entire ABE framework appears to be opposed to the critical, testing, repetition framework common to secondary and college foreign language course work.

A second language is a language of utility. Unlike a foreign language, it is one which a speaker must use to carry on his daily affairs, perhaps for the rest of his life. Since this is the case with many ABE second language learners, yet another assumption is suggested. The materials used in the teaching of a second language in an ABE framework should be full of the content goals of the program. It is not at all strange to find the second language part of an ABE program set off from "practical" courses such as driver's education, home management, and pre-vocational training. What

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A second language is a language of utility. Unlike a foreign language, it is one which a speaker must use to carry on his daily affairs, perhaps for the rest of his life. Since this is the case with many ABE second language learners, yet another assumption is suggested. The materials used in the teaching of a second language in an ABE framework should be full of the content goals of the program. It is not at all strange to find the second language part of an ABE program set off from "practical" courses such as driver's education, home management, and pre-vocational training. What a waste of valuable, instructional time! Every moment spent in teaching the second language could be a double moment, involving the content and goals of the entire ABE curriculum. And, a most important point: *it is criminal to provide ABE second language instruction "from the book."* No texts yet provided reflect the needs of the ABE curriculum. That is the task of the second language teacher, with the help of colleagues who are responsible for other areas of the curriculum.

English As a Second Language

Finally, I want to discuss *English* in the ESL-ABE program. This may seem strange and noncontroversial. Unfortunately, what English is *is* controversial. Many people regard English as an Emily Post activity rather than a communications activity. Although this point has little to do with our earlier definitions, it is a universally misunderstood notion in the teaching of English to native and to non-native speakers. Briefly, my point is this: *we need not train speakers of English to levels of competence above those of the community in which they operate.* That is, we should teach a reasonable level of functional English, common to the general community, and demand no more. Grammar, in the mistaken sense that grammar equals correct speech, has little or no place in an ESL-ABE program.

Bringing the Ideas Together

Some of you are perhaps disappointed by these wanderings of a linguist into territories not his own, but I am more and more impressed by the need for teachers who are capable of processing specific information from a rather large number of fields and applying it to such specific teaching environments as ESL-ABE. Since I recognize it as a need in teachers, I was so bold as to have a try at it myself. I only hope my thoughts help bring together some ideas about the teaching of English as a second language in ABE.

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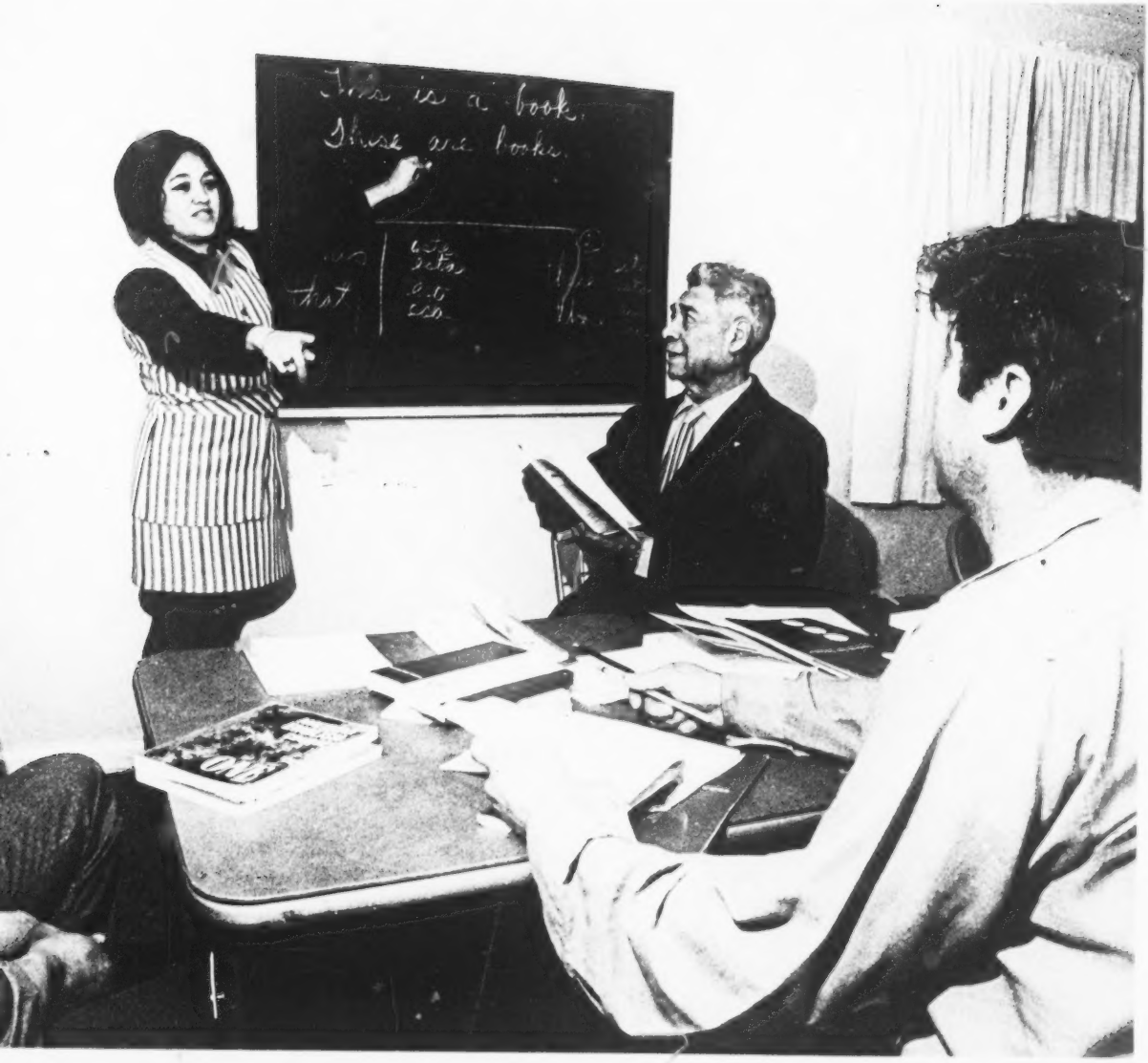
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ABE students who are learning English as a second language, and other ABE students as well, are likely to be much more successful in academic pursuits if lesson topics are related to daily living experiences. Furthermore, concepts and skills to be developed should be broken into segments and cycled into the curriculum. Examples in this article, which are on the topic of "Consumer Education," are adapted from lessons developed by Mike Bash and Thomas Z. Miranda.

The objectives of all three lessons include helping adult students as follows:

- To understand values of good credit ratings
- To learn how to establish good credit ratings
- To determine appropriateness of interest rates
- To recognize perils of bad credit ratings

Whether lessons on a particular topic are cycled for student use a day, week, or month apart would depend on student needs and program structure. It is important, however, to keep in mind that not too many vocabulary words or skills should be introduced at one time and that topic areas should be cycled periodically so that a student's depth of understanding keeps pace with his ability to handle the English language in both its oral and written forms. The examples which follow are not intended for back-to-back usage. Rather, they illustrate lessons of increasing depth.

This article was based on sample lessons used by Thomas Z. Miranda at an Adult Basic Education Workshop held in Columbus, Ohio on August 9-11, 1971. Adapted lessons are used with permission. Actual lessons are incorporated in the text *Inglés Para Sobrevivir,* copyrighted in 1971 by Latin American Family Education Program, Inc., Gary, Indiana.

CONSUMER EDUCATION: Cycle

Vocabulary

Nouns/Noun Phrases	*Verb Phrases*
account	to borrow money
BCA	to buy on credit
cash	to charge
credit	to close an account
Credit Bureau	to finance
credit card	to open an account
credit rating	to pay interest
finance company	to take out a loan
interest charge	to use a credit card

Dialogue

Mr. A: What are you buying?
Mr. B: I'm buying a new TV set.
Mr. A: Cash or credit?
Mr. B: Credit. I'm opening an account.
Mrs. C: What are you charging?
Mrs. D: I need to finance a stove.
Mrs. C: How?
Mrs. D: BCA account.

Reading Exercise

When you buy anything on credit, information is sent to the Credit Bureau. The Credit Bureau helps banks, department stores, and finance companies. The Credit Bureau can give out credit information on you. That's one reason a good credit rating is important.

Activity Ideas*

Use dialogue for role playing.
Do reading exercise orally.
Conduct oral language drills.
Discuss types of credit cards—department stores, gasoline companies, banks.
Discuss opening a credit account, interest charge differences, and value of credit ratings.
Help students complete credit card application worksheet.

Grammatical Foc

What plus prese
Example: *What*

Materials Neede

Student copies
and reading e
Sample credit ca
Sample credit ca
Credit card appl

Repetition Drills

Teacher: What
Students: What
Teacher: I'm o
Students: I'm o
Teacher: I will
Students: I will

Single-Slot Substi

Teacher: He's o
Student: He's c
Teacher: Pay.
Student: He's p

Multiple-Slot Sub

Teacher: He's b
Students: They'
He's b
Borrow
Students: He's b
Teacher: He's b
Take
Student: He's t

Question and Ans

Teacher: Mr. Is
Mr. Ison. I'm st
Teacher: What
Mr. Ison: I'm st

Transformation Dr

Teacher: You're
Change
Student: What a
Teacher: She's p
Student: What's

**Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.*

CONSUMER EDUCATION: Cycle One

Vocabulary

Nouns/Noun Phrases	*Verb Phrases*
account	to borrow money
BCA	to buy on credit
cash	to charge
credit	to close an account
Credit Bureau	to finance
credit card	to open an account
credit rating	to pay interest
finance company	to take out a loan
interest charge	to use a credit card

Dialogue

Mr. A: What are you buying?
Mr. B: I'm buying a new TV set.
Mr. A: Cash or credit?
Mr. B: Credit. I'm opening an account.
Mrs. C: What are you charging?
Mrs. D: I need to finance a stove.
Mrs. C: How?
Mrs. D: BCA account.

Reading Exercise

When you buy anything on credit, information is sent to the Credit Bureau. The Credit Bureau helps banks, department stores, and finance companies. The Credit Bureau can give out credit information on you. That's one reason a good credit rating is important.

Activity Ideas*

Use dialogue for role playing.
Do reading exercise orally.
Conduct oral language drills.
Discuss types of credit cards—department stores, gasoline companies, banks.
Discuss opening a credit account, interest charge differences, and value of credit ratings.
Help students complete credit card application worksheet.

**Grammatical Focus*

What plus present progressive.
Example: *What are you buying?*

Materials Needed*

Student copies of vocabulary list, dialogue, and reading exercise
Sample credit cards
Sample credit card applications
Credit card application worksheets

Repetition Drills

Teacher: What are you doing?
Students: What are you doing?
Teacher: I'm opening an account.
Students: I'm opening an account.
Teacher: I will use a credit card.
Students: I will use a credit card.

Single-Slot Substitution Drills

Teacher: He's opening an account. Close.
Student: He's closing an account.
Teacher: Pay.
Student: He's paying an account.

Multiple-Slot Substitution Drills

Teacher: He's buying a TV set. They.
Students: They're buying a TV set.
He's buying a TV set.
Borrow. Money.
Students: He's borrowing money.
Teacher: He's buying a TV set.
Take out. Loan.
Students: He's taking out a loan.

Question and Answer Drills

Teacher: Mr. Ison, what are you doing?
Mr. Ison: I'm studying.
Teacher: What are you studying?
Mr. Ison: I'm studying English.

Transformation Drills

Teacher: You're financing a stove.
Change to a "what" question.
Student: What are you financing?
Teacher: She's paying an interest charge.
Student: What's she paying?

Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.

Additional Vocabulary

Nouns/Noun Phrases	*Verb Phrases*
amount per month	to be honest
business firms	to cause hardships
courts	to establish credit
debts	to have goods taken
down payment	by the courts
goods	to meet emergencies
emergencies	to meet payments
Adjectives/Adverbs	to owe
anywhere	to pay off a debt
honest	to return goods
necessary	to shop around
somewhere	to tell the truth

Dialogue

Bank Officer: So, it is necessary for you to borrow some money.
Applicant: Yes, it is.
Bank Officer: Do you have any credit?
Applicant: Yes, I have good credit at a bank and at Sears.
Bank Officer: Do you have a bank loan somewhere now?
Applicant: Yes, I financed a car last year.
Bank Officer: From which bank?
Applicant: Ohio Bank in Ruralsville where I lived then.
Bank Officer: What do you pay per month?
Applicant: I pay eighty dollars.
Bank Officer: Why do you have to borrow money now?
Applicant: I have to buy some things for the house.

Activity Ideas*

Review Cycle One vocabulary.
Use dialogue for role playing.
Do reading exercise orally.
Conduct oral language drills.
Discuss types of loans–bank, finance company, personal.
Discuss loan application procedures.
Help students complete loan application worksheet.

Grammatical Focus

Simple present in positive and question forms.
Also short answers.

Materials Needed*

Student copies of vocabulary list
Several copies of dialogue
Student copies of reading exercise
Simple loan application forms
Loan application worksheets

Reading Exercise

All money has two sides. Credit is like money. It has two sides. One side of credit is what it can do for you. Credit has helped many families to buy things for the house, to buy cars, and to meet emergencies. The other side of credit is what it does to you. Credit has caused many families worry, hardship, and loss of money and jobs.

If you decide to use credit, you should plan to keep the price you pay for credit as low as you can. Shop around for a good credit buy. Learn to shop for credit as well as the goods you buy. Plan to make as large a down payment as you can. Pay off the debt in as short a time as you can.

If you can't meet a payment, don't wait. Go to the firm at once and tell them you can't meet the payment. Tell them the truth about why you can't pay. Honest business firms will help you work out a new plan if they feel you are honest and trying to pay your debts. You may need to return what you bought. It is better to return goods than to have them taken by the courts.

Adapted from "Consumer Credit and You" by the Indiana Cooperative Extension Service.

**Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.*

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Student

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Mrs. X:
Teacher
Mrs. X:
Teacher
Mr. Y:
Teacher
Miss Z.

CONSUMER EDUCATION: Cycle Two

Grammatical Focus

Simple present in positive and question forms.
Also short answers.

Materials Needed*

Student copies of vocabulary list
Several copies of dialogue
Student copies of reading exercise
Simple loan application forms
Loan application worksheets

Reading Exercise

All money has two sides. Credit is like money. It has two sides. One side of credit is what it can do for you. Credit has helped many families to buy things for the house, to buy cars, and to meet emergencies. The other side of credit is what it does to you. Credit has caused many families worry, hardship, and loss of money and jobs.

If you decide to use credit, you should plan to keep the price you pay for credit as low as you can. Shop around for a good credit buy. Learn to shop for credit as well as the goods you buy. Plan to make as large a down payment as you can. Pay off the debt in as short a time as you can.

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Adapted from "Consumer Credit and You" by the Indiana Cooperative Extension Service.

**Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.*

Repetition Drills

Teacher: Do you have credit anywhere else?
Students: Do you have credit anywhere else?
Teacher: I have good credit at a bank.
Students: I have good credit at a bank.
Teacher: How much do you pay per month?
Students: How much do you pay per month?
Teacher: I pay eighty dollars per month.
Students: I pay eighty dollars per month.

Substitution Drills

Teacher: Do you have credit here? I.
Students: Do I have credit here?
Teacher: He.
Students: Does he have credit here?
Teacher: We.
Students: Do we have credit here?
Teacher: They.
Students: Do they have credit here?
Teacher: At Sears.
Students: Do they have credit at Sears?

Analogy Drills

Teacher: He wants credit here. How about her?
Students: She wants credit here, too.
Teacher: They establish credit at Sears. How about you?
Students: We establish credit at Sears, too.

Transformation Drills

Teacher: He wants credit here.
Students: Does he want credit here?
Teacher: I establish credit at Sears.
Students: Do you establish credit at Sears?

Question and Answer Drills

Teacher: Mrs. X, do you have credit anywhere?
Mrs. X: Yes, I do.
Teacher: Where?
Mrs. X: With Sohio.
Teacher: What about you, Mr. Y?
Mr. Y: Yes, at Penny's.
Teacher: Miss Z?
Miss Z: No, but I want credit somewhere.

Additional Vocabulary

Nouns/Noun Phrases	*Adjectives/Adverbs*
credit transactions	actual—actually
confidence	automatic—automatically
easy payments	certain—certainly
fine print	considerable—considerably
lender	convenient—conveniently
other factors besides cost	honest—honestly
personal assets	necessary—necessarily
Verb Phrases	probable—probably
to accumulate savings	simple—simply
to buy on time	easy—easily
to investigate	regular—regularly

Dialogue

Bank Officer: Mr. Smith, I want to remind you that you're a month behind in your payments.

Mr. Smith: I am? I certainly thought I was keeping up rather well.

Bank Officer: You know, when we set up the payment schedule we tried to make regular payments easy for you.

Mr. Smith: Actually, I don't know what happened. I gave my wife the money to pay you last month. She probably forgot.

Reading Exercise

(A two-page selection on managing your family's credit.)

Grammatical Focus

Adverbs from Adjectives

Materials Needed*

Student copies of vocabulary list
Several copies of dialogue
Student copies of book with reading exercise
Film on credit
Sample copies of invoices, statements, and payment books
Adjective/adverb worksheet
Discussion question worksheet

Activity Ideas*

Review Cycle One and Cycle Two vocabulary.
Use dialogue for role playing.
Have students read the selection on managing credit silently and discuss.
Borrow a film on credit from the school or the public library to show and discuss.
Conduct oral language drills.
Help students complete adjective/adverb worksheet.
Help students write sentence responses for discussion question worksheet.
Review concepts developed in all consumer education lessons.

**Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.*

Word Transfo

Adjective plu

Adjective plus ally

Adjective plu

Adjective plus ily

Sentence Trans

Teacher: The pay
Students: You
Teacher: He pay
Students: He
Teacher: The The
Students: The
Teacher: Ope You
Students: You mat
Teacher: Buy buy
Students: You

ry

s *Adjectives/Adverbs*
actual–actually
automatic–
automatically
certain–certainly
considerable–
considerably
convenient–
conveniently
honest–honestly
necessary–
gs necessarily
probable–probably
simple–simply
easy–easily
regular–regularly

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ened. I gave my wife
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h. She probably forgot.

ion on managing your

CONSUMER EDUCATION: Cycle Three

Grammatical Focus

Adverbs from Adjectives

Materials Needed*

Student copies of vocabulary list
Several copies of dialogue
Student copies of book with reading exercise
Film on credit
Sample copies of invoices, statements, and payment books
Adjective/adverb worksheet
Discussion question worksheet

Activity Ideas*

Review Cycle One and Cycle Two vocabulary.
Use dialogue for role playing.
Have students read the selection on managing credit silently and discuss.
Borrow a film on credit from the school or the public library to show and discuss.
Conduct oral language drills
Help students complete adjective/adverb worksheet.
Help students write sentence responses for discussion question worksheet.
Review concepts developed in all consumer education lessons.

**Word Transformation Drills*

	Teacher	*Students*
Adjective plus ly	actual	actually
	certain	certainly
	convenient	conveniently
	honest	honestly
	regular	regularly
Adjective plus ally	automatic	automatically
Adjective plus y	considerable	considerably
	probable	probably
	simple	simply
Adjective plus ily	easy	easily
	happy	happily
	necessary	necessarily

Sentence Transformation Drills

Teacher: The payments are easy. You pay . . . .
Students: You pay easily.
Teacher: He makes regular payments. He pays . . . .
Students: He pays regularly.
Teacher: The payment is considerable. They pay . . . .
Students: They pay considerably.
Teacher: Opening an account is automatic. You can open . . . .
Students: You can open an account automatically.
Teacher: Buying on time is simple. You can buy . . . .
Students: You can buy on time simply.

**Materials needed and activities conducted will depend on students' language abilities, extent to which instruction is conducted orally, and time available.*

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Martin W. Essex, *Supe*
Robert Bowers, *Assista*
Division of Federal Assi
R. A. Horn, *Director*
James Miller, *Special*
Kenneth Gartrell, *Edu*
George Travis, *Educati*
Eileen Young, *Educati*
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Martin W. Essex, *Superintendent of Public Instruction*
Robert Bowers, *Assistant Superintendent, Instruction*
Division of Federal Assistance
R. A. Horn, *Director*
James Miller, *Special Programs Section Chief*
Kenneth Gartrell, *Educational Consultant*
George Travis, *Educational Consultant*
Eileen Young, *Educational Consultant and Editor*
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